Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2007 with funding from
Microsoft Corporation

http://www.archive.org/details/travelsinrussiat00clarrich

TRAVELS

IN

RUSSIA, TARTARY AND TURKEY

BY

EDWARD DANIEL CLARKE, LL.D.

WITH A

MEMOIR OF THE AUTHOR,

AND NUMEROUS ADDITIONS AND NOTES, PREPARED FOR THE PRESENT EDITION.

EDINBURGH:

PUBLISHED BY WILLIAM AND ROBERT CHAMBERS;

AND SOLD BY ALL BOOKSELLERS.

1839.

EDINBURGH:
PRINTED BY W. AND R. CHAMBERS,
19, WATERLOO PLACE.

MEMOIR OF DR CLARKE AND HIS WRITINGS.

Edward Daniel Clarke, the author of the present work, was the second son of the Rev. Edward Clarke, author of Letters on the Spanish Nation, and was born in 1767. He received his education at Jesus College, Cambridge, of which society he became a Fellow, having taken the degree of A.M. in 1794. Soon after, he accompanied Lord Berwick to Italy; and in 1799, set out on a projected series of travels in Europe and Asia, in company with his friend Mr Cripps. The first countries visited by Mr Clarke were Russia, Tartary, and Turkey; he next visited Greece, Egypt, and Syria; and, finally, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Lapland, and Finland—which formed the subjects of three separate descriptive works. On his return, he obtained from the university to which he belonged the honorary degree of LL.D., as a distinguished mark of its approbation, and in consideration of the services rendered to its public libraries and institutions by his liberal contributions, among which the greatest, perhaps, in value, is a manuscript of Plato's works, with nearly a hundred others, and a colossal statue of the Eleusinian Ceres, the whole brought from eastern countries. In 1806, Dr Clarke commenced a course of lectures on mineralogy, having brought a splendid collection of specimens to Europe; and, in 1808, a professorship being founded purposely for the encouragement of that branch of knowledge, he was elevated to the chair. From this period he continued to occupy himself in the diligent pursuit of science, and in the preparation of the narrative of his travels, the first part of which, devoted to Russia, Tartary, and Turkey, was given to the world in the form of a large quarto volume in the month of May 1810. Dr Clarke's valuable life was closed, however, before the last part of his travels made its appearance—he died March 9, 1821.

Few works of travels have been more successful in gaining public approbation than those of Dr Clarke. On his qualifications as a writer, a critic in the Edinburgh Review has made the following remarks:—"Dr Clarke possesses much general knowledge, which he employs without pedantry, and displays without ostentation; nor does he often fatigue attention, by dwelling too long, or too minutely, upon any subject. We have, indeed, seldom met with a traveller, whose descriptions are more lively, or who presents objects more distinctly to the mental eye. His pictures, it is true, are generally spirited compositions, full of character and animation; and he paints with the ease and the rapidity, if not always with the skill and the grace, of a master. But (to continue the metaphor) his colouring is occasionally too gaudy—his lights too glaring—and his shadows too dark." Before making any special remark on the manner in which Dr Clarke has drawn up the most popular of all his productions, the Travels in Russia, &c., of which the present is a reprint, it will be necessary to allow a place to the author's prefatory observations, appended to the first edition of the work. These are as follow:—

"Under circumstances of peculiar anxiety, the author presents the First Part of his Travels to the public. A sense of unearned praise, already bestowed by too eager anticipation, weighs heavy on his mind; and some degree of apprehension attaches to the consciousness of having obeyed a strong impulse of duty in the unfavourable representation made of the state of society in Russia. The moral picture afforded of its inhabitants may seem distorted by spleen, and traced under other impressions than those of general charity and Christian benevolence: on which account the reader is doubly entreated to pardon defects, which experience, chastened by criticism, may subsequently amend; and to suspend the judgment, which more general acquaintance with the author may ultimately mitigate. The present publication is not the only one on which he will have to form an opinion: it is merely an introduction to his future notice. The plan under contemplation is to complete, in three separate parts, a series of travels in Europe, Asia, and Africa; so that each portion, consisting of one or more volumes, may constitute a survey of some particular region. Thus, for example, the work now published relates to travels in Russia, Tartary, and Turkey; a second may include the observations collected in Greece, Syria, and Egypt; and, finally, a third, those which presented themselves in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Lapland, and Finland. But, in order to accomplish so extensive an undertaking, some indulgence is required to the manner of its execution; some credit for better disposition towards his fellow-creatures, than the author's severe penance in Russia may seem to have excited. It is not so generally known as it may be, that the passage of a small rivulet, which separates the two countries of Sweden and Russia, the mere crossing of a bridge, conducts the traveller from all that adorns and dignifies the human mind, to whatsoever, most abject, has been found to degrade it. If the late empress and autocrat of all the Russias, Catherine II., could find a Volney, who would prostitute his venal pen to varnish the deformities of her reign and of her empire; if Potemkin did not want an apologist and an advocate, even among the writers of this country, Great Britain will forgive the frankness of one among her sons, who has ventured, although harshly, to speak the truth. It is a language not wholly obscured in the more cautious descriptions of former writers. Tubervile of England, Augustine of Germany, Olearius of Denmark, and, more recently, the Abbé de la Chappe of France, together with the author of many anonymous productions, represent the real character of the people, in colours

which neither the *antidote* of Alexis Mussin Pashkin, the drivellings of Voltaire, or all the hired deceptions of French philosophers and *savans*, have been able to wipe away." After thanking different gentlemen, who had kindly lent their assistance to him in the course of editing his travels, he proceeds:—"To the Rev. Reginald Heber, of Brazen-Nose College, Oxford, the author is indebted for the very valuable manuscript journal which afforded the extracts given in the notes. In addition to Mr Heber's habitual accuracy, may be mentioned the statistical information which stamps a peculiar value on his observations; this has enriched the volume by communications the author himself was incompetent to supply."

After an interval of twenty-eight years, the Travels of Dr Clarke continue to maintain their place in public estimation, both from the general faithfulness of the details, and the graphic delineations which are presented of the manners of the Russians. It has only been a subject of regret that in some instances the learned traveller has apparently suffered prejudices to give a tone of sarcasm and ill-founded reproach, where gentle raillery or the "charity which never faileth" ought to have been employed. On account of this unfortunate peculiarity in the Travels in Russia, the editors of the present edition (which is carefully reprinted from the first 4to edition of 1810) have found it necessary, in point of justice, to neutralise some of the author's statements by means of foot-notes of an opposite character, and more consonant with what was some years ago, and now is, the condition of the Russians. They have also supplied a few deficiencies and additional statements in reference to places of importance visited by the author, so as to give the work much of the interest of a fresh production: in this manner, an account of St Petersburg, which was entirely omitted by Dr Clarke, has been given; also an account of Moscow since its destruction during the French invasion of the country; and, in the form of additions at the conclusion of the author's narrative, an account has been given of Poland, Siberia, and other districts which were not visited by him in the course of his travels. With the view of bringing the work up to the present state of information, the editors have appended a narrative descriptive of the existing condition of Russia, from which it is hoped a tolerably correct estimate will be obtained of the extent, population, government, and resources of the empire, as well as of the state of advancement of the people.

In order to enter fully into the feelings of Dr Clarke, in his observations on the political organisation of Russia, it is to be kept in view that he visited the country at an exceedingly unpropitious period—the reign of the Emperor Paul, to whom no other character than that of a frantic madman can be properly assigned. This extraordinary personage, it may be explained, was the only son of his predecessor on the throne, the Empress Catherine. His father, Peter III., was the son of Elizabeth, daughter of Peter I. or Great, and was assassinated by the connivance of his wife Catherine, who reigned from the period of this disgraceful event in 1762, till her death in 1796. Catherine at all times displayed an extraordinary hatred of her son Paul. At her fêtes the Grand Duke was never present; he was kept by his jealous mother in constant retirement. She seems to have felt that she occupied a throne which was his by right of birth, and took every means to render him insignificant and powerless. As Paul, however, was the last scion of Peter the Great, it was an object of anxious solicitude with Catherine and the whole nation to get him speedily married. The first wife selected for and imposed upon him having died, another was sought out, and the choice was in favour of a princess of Wirtemburg-Stutgard. The second marriage of Paul took place in 1776, and from that period he and his amiable consort lived in great seclusion, exposed to repeated insults from the empress. She was not satisfied with depriving her son of the estimation due to his station and prospects as her successor, as well as of her maternal affection, but she likewise took from him the rights and pleasures of a father. When his wife required to be delivered of her children, she was ordered to the Palace of Tzarsko-selo, and there left in the hands of strangers. Her numerous progeny was brought up under Catherine, neither the father nor mother being allowed to have the least control in the education of their children, nor even to see them, except at stated intervals. A proceeding so utterly harsh and revolting to humanity could not fail to have a serious influence on the temper of Paul; and the deplorable eccentricities which afterwards distinguished his career, may be almost entirely attributed to the infamous policy of Catherine. From this state of vassalage and contempt, at the age of forty-three, Paul ascended the throne of his deceased mother November 17, 1796. The first acts of his government were popular and beneficent, and such as could by no means have been expected from the neglected state of his education, and previous ignorance of state affairs. It was not long before his strange character began to develope itself. All affairs of government, and every thing else, were in his eyes secondary to the important concerns of dressing and exercising his soldiers. The length of a soldier's step, the shape of a hat, the colour of a feather, the altitude of a grenadier's cap, boots, spatterdashes, cockades, queues, and sword-belts, occupied all his thoughts. It was while Paul was in this state of phrensy that Dr Clarke visited Russia, and found him engaged in issuing the most ridiculous orders regarding the costume and manners of his subjects. His mad behaviour, as is well known, became altogether intolerable both to civilians and soldiers; the number of his exiles was increased to a dreadful extent, and Siberia was peopled with the most illustrious men of Russia. Every one longed to be rid of such an object of terror, and by means of a well-concerted conspiracy, he was assassinated in his palace at St Petersburg, on the 1st of March 1801. He was succeeded by his eldest son Alexander, brother of Nicholas, the present emperor.

Edinburgh, March 15, 1839.

CLARKE'S TRAVELS IN RUSSIA.

CHAPTER I.

PETERSBURG.

It has probably happened to others, as to myself, to cast an eye of wishful curiosity towards the eastern boundaries of Europe. Above two thousand years ago they were the same they now are. The Tanaïs, watering the plains of Sarmatia, separated the Roxolani and the Jazyges from the Hamaxobii and the Alani. In modern geography, the same river, altered in its appellation, divides the tribe of Don Cossacks from that of Tshernomorski, whose territory extends from the Sea of Azof to the Kuban. The Greeks, by their commerce in the Euxine, derived a slight knowledge of the people who lived on the Palus Mæotis. The wars of Russia and Turkey directed our attention sometimes to the inhabitants of the same country; but the knowledge of them, both among the ancients and moderns, has scarcely exceeded the names of their tribes, and their character in war. With their domestic habits, the productions of their country, the nature of its scenery, the remains of antiquity they possess, we are very little acquainted. By referring to ancient history, we find that the same want of information prevailed formerly as at present. This may be accounted for from the wandering disposition of the people, who were seldom settled for any length of time upon the same spot; and with regard to their successors, since the migration of the Poles to the marshes of the Don, and the expulsion of the Kuban Tartars by the Cossacks of the Black Sea, their country has been submitted to very little examination. It was among these people that the political differences of England and Russia drove me a willing exile from the cities of Petersburg and Moscow, in the last year of the eighteenth century. Necessity and inclination were coupled together; and I had the double satisfaction of escaping from the persecution of the enemies of my country, and of exploring regions, which, in the warmest sallies of hope, I had never thought it would be my destiny to visit.

In the course of this journey, through extensive plains which have been improperly called deserts, and among a secluded people who with as little reason have been deemed savages, I had certainly neither the luxuries and dissipation of polished cities, nor the opportunities of indolence, to interrupt my attention to my journal. If, therefore, it fails to interest the public, I have no excuse to offer. I present it to them as similar as possible to the state in which notes taken on the spot were made, containing whatever my feeble abilities were qualified to procure for their information and amusement, and adhering, as far as I am conscious, in every representation, strictly to the truth.

After suffering a number of indignities, in common with others of my countrymen, during our residence in Petersburg, about the middle of March 1800, matters grew to such extremities, that our excellent ambassador, Sir Charles (now Lord) Whitworth, found it necessary to advise us to go to Moscow. A passport had been denied to his courier to proceed with dispatches to England. In answer to the demand made by our minister for an explanation, it was stated to be *the emperor's pleasure.* In consequence of which, Sir Charles enclosed the note containing his demand, and the emperor's answer, in a letter to the English government, which he committed to the post-office with very great doubts of its safety.

In the meantime, every day brought with it some new example of the sovereign's absurdities and tyranny, which seemed to originate in absolute insanity. The sledge of count Razumoffski was, by the emperor's order, broken into small pieces, while he stood by and directed the work. The horses had been found with it in the streets without their driver. It happened to be of a blue colour, and the count's servants wore red liveries—upon which a *ukase* was immediately published, prohibiting, throughout the empire of all the Russias, the use of blue colour in ornamenting sledges, and red liveries. In consequence of this wise decree, our ambassador, and many others, were compelled to alter their equipage.

One evening, being at his theatre in the Hermitage, a French piece was performed, in which the story of the English powder-plot was introduced. The emperor was observed to listen to it with more than usual attention; and as soon as it was concluded, he ordered all the vaults beneath the palace to be searched.

Coming down the street called the Perspective, he perceived a nobleman who was taking his walk, and had stopped to look at some workmen who were planting trees by the emperor's order. "What are you doing?" said he. "Merely seeing the men work," replied the nobleman. "Oh! is that your employment? Take off his pelisse, and give him a spade! There, now work yourself!"

When enraged, he lost all command of himself, which sometimes gave rise to very ludicrous scenes. The courtiers knew very well when the storm was coming on, by a trick which he had in those moments of blowing from his under lip against the end of his nose. In one of his furious passions, flourishing his cane about, he struck by accident the branch of a large glass lustre, and broke it. As soon as he perceived what had happened, he attacked the lustre in good earnest, and did not give up his work until he had entirely demolished it.

In the rare intervals of better temper, his good humour was betrayed by an uncouth way of swinging his legs and feet about in walking. Upon those occasions, he was sure to talk with indecency and folly.

But the instances were few in which the gloom, spread over a great metropolis by the madness and malevolence of a suspicious tyrant, was enlivened even by his ribaldry. The accounts of the Spanish Inquisition do not afford more painful sensations than were excited in viewing the state of Russia at this time. Hardly a day passed without unjust punishment. It seemed as if half the nobles in the empire were to be sent exiles to Siberia. Those who were able to leave Petersburg went to Moscow. It was in vain they applied for permission to leave the country; the very request might incur banishment to the mines. If any family received visitors in an evening; if four people were seen walking together; if any one spoke too loud, or whistled, or sang, or looked too inquisitive, and examined any public building with too much attention—they were in imminent danger. If they stood still in the streets, or frequented any particular walk more than another, or walked too fast, or too slow, they were liable to be reprimanded and insulted by the police officers. Mungo Park was hardly exposed to greater severity of exaction and of villany among the Moors in Africa, than Englishmen experienced at that time in Russia, and particularly in Petersburg. They were compelled to wear a dress regulated by the police: and as every officer had a different notion of the mode of observing these regulations, they were constantly liable to be in-

terrupted in the streets and public places, and treated with impertinence. The dress consisted of a cocked hat, or, for want of one, a round hat pinned up with three corners; a long queue; a single-breasted coat and waistcoat; knee-buckles instead of strings; and buckles in the shoes. Orders were given to arrest any person seen in pantaloons. A servant was taken out of his sledge, and caned in the streets, for having too thick a neckcloth; and if it had been too thin, he would have met a similar punishment. After every precaution, the dress, when put on, never satisfied; either the hat was not straight on the head, the hair too short, or the coat was not cut square enough. A lady at court wore her hair rather lower in her neck than was consistent with the decree, and she was ordered into close confinement, to be fed on bread and water. A gentleman's hair fell a little over his forehead, while dancing at a ball; a police officer attacked him with rudeness and with abuse, and told him, if he did not instantly cut his hair, he would find a soldier who could shave his head. [A mode of punishing criminals in Russia.]

When the ukase first appeared concerning the form of the hat, the son of an English merchant, with a view to baffle the police, appeared in the streets of Petersburg, having on his head an English hunting-cap, at sight of which the police officers were puzzled. "It was not a cocked hat," they said, "neither was it a round hat." In this embarrassment, they reported the affair to the emperor. An ukase was accordingly promulgated, and levelled at the hunting-cap; but not knowing how to describe the anomaly, the emperor ordained, that *no person should appear in public with the thing on his head worn by the merchant's son.*

An order against wearing boots with coloured tops was most rigorously enforced. The police officers stopped a gentleman driving through the streets in a pair of English boots. The gentleman expostulated, saying that he had no others with him, and certainly would not cut off the tops of his boots; upon which the officers, each seizing a leg as he sat in his drosky, fell to work, and drew off his boots, leaving him to go barefooted home.

If Englishmen ventured to notice any of these enormities in their letters, which were all opened and read by the police, or expressed themselves with energy in praise of their own country, or used a single sentiment or expression offensive or incomprehensible to the police officers or their spies, they were liable to be torn in an instant, without any previous notice, from their families and friends, thrown into a sledge, and hurried off to the frontier, or to Siberia. Many persons were said to have been privately murdered, and more were banished. Never was there a system of administration more offensive in the eyes of God or man. A veteran officer, who had served fifty years in the Russian army, and attained the rank of colonel, was broken without the smallest reason. Above a hundred officers met with their discharge, all of whom were ruined; and many others were condemned to suffer imprisonment or severer punishment. The cause of all this was said to be the emperor's ill humour: and when the cause of that ill humour became known, it appeared that his mistress, who detested him, had solicited permission to marry an officer to whom she was betrothed. To such excessive cruelty did his rage carry him against the author of an epigram, in which his reign had been contrasted with his mother's, that he ordered his tongue to be cut out; and sent him to one of those remote islands, in the Alcoutan tract, on the north-west coast of America, which are inhabited by savages.*

Viewing the career of such men, who, like a whirlwind, mark their progress through the ages in which they live by a track of desolation, can we wonder at the stories we read of regicides? "There is something," says Mr Park, "in the frown of a tyrant, which rouses the most inward emotions of the soul." In the prospect of dismay, of calamity, and of sorrow, mankind might experience in the reign of Paul, I felt an inward, and, as the event has proved, a true presentiment of his approaching death: and I will freely confess, much as I abhor the manner of it, that it was

——— a consummation
Devoutly to be wished.

The season began to change before we left Petersburg. The cold became daily less intense; and the inhabitants were busied in moving from the Neva large blocks of ice into their cellars. A most interesting and remarkable phenomenon took place the day before our departure: the thermometer of Celsius stood at that time only five degrees below the freezing point, and there was no wind. Snow, in the most regular and beautiful crystals, fell gently on our clothes, and on the sledge, as we were driving in the streets. All of them possessed exactly the same figure, and the same dimension. Every particle consisted of a wheel or star, with six equal rays, bounded by circumferences of equal diameters: they had all of them the same number of rays branching from a common centre. The size of each of these little stars was equal to the circle presented by dividing a pea into two equal parts. This appearance continued during three hours; in which time no other snow fell, and there was sufficient leisure to examine them with the strictest attention, and to make the representation given in the first figure.

As water, in its crystallisation, seems to consist of radii diverging from a common centre, by the usual appearances on the surface of ice, it might be possible to obtain the theory, and to ascertain the laws, from which this stellar structure results.* Monge, president of the National Institute of Paris, noticed, in falling snow, stars with six equal rays, which fell, during winter, when the atmosphere was calm. Hauy records this, in his observations on the muriat of ammonia.†

The first *drosky*‡ had made its appearance in the streets of Petersburg before we left it; and we began to entertain serious apprehensions that the snow would fail, and our sledge-way to Moscow be destroyed. We had often been told of the rapidity with which the warm season makes its appearance in this climate, there being hardly any interval of spring, but an almost instanta-

* The following is the sense of that memorable epigram, according to different translations in French and in English. It originated in the Emperor Paul's attempting to finish with brick-work the beautiful church of St Isaac, which his predecessor Catherine had begun in marble.

De deux regnes voici l'image allegorique:
La base est d'un beau marbre, et le somet de brique!
This great monument is emblematic of two reigns:
The bottom is of marble, and the top of brick!

* An equiangular and equilateral plane hexagon is divisible into three equal and similar rhombs: and if the engraved figure A be attentively observed, it will appear that each linear ray of the star is a diagonal (see figure B) joining the acute angles of a rhomb, whose sides are the loci of the extreme points of the lines of ramification from these diagonals. The rhomb may therefore be the primitive form of water crystallised. This seems the more manifest, because, if equal and similar rhombs be applied between all the rays of the star A, in the spaces 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, an equilateral and equiangular hexagon will be the result, as represented by the dotted line in figure C.

† "Il en résulte des étoiles à six rayons, lorsque le temps est calme, et que la température n'est pas assez élevée pour deformer les cristaux."—["When the weather is calm, and the temperature not too high to destroy the crystallisation, there result stars with six rays."—Hauy, *Treatise on Min.* vol. ii. p. 386. The same appearance has been noticed in this country; and, according to a letter published in an Edinburgh paper, it was witnessed during the late storm (January and February 1838) in the county of Lanark.]

‡ The *drosky* is a kind of bench upon four wheels, used in Russia as our hackney coaches: it contains four or six persons, sitting back to back, thus driven sideways by the coachman, who sits at the end of the bench. This vehicle succeeds the sledge, after the melting of the snow.

neous transition from winter to summer. The frozen provisions of the city, if not consumed by the appointed time, which may be generally conjectured to a day, almost instantly putrify when the frost disappears.

[NEW ACCOUNT OF ST PETERSBURG.

In the reign of Charles XI. of Sweden, it was the custom to pay the soldiers in land, and a trumpeter who had an allotment made to him near the mouth of the river Neva, complained that it was an unwholesome swamp, insufficient for his maintenance. Upon this spot is built the magnificent city of St Petersburg. The history of its foundation by the great Peter is sufficiently known. In 1703, the building a new capital for the Russian empire on the shores of the Baltic was commenced, and Peter erected the first house himself. It was a wooden hut, which is yet to be seen by the traveller, protected by a brick covering. From this humble beginning, and upon one of the most difficult sites, has arisen the most splendid metropolis in the world. Owing to the zeal of the successive Russian sovereigns, Petersburg has been continually enlarged and embellished, and, with more justice than is common in such appellations, it is styled "The City of Palaces." Not only the sumptuous edifices belonging to the crown, but the houses of the nobility and wealthy inhabitants, are upon a scale of grandeur unequalled in other capitals. The great breadth of the streets adds very much to the imposing effect, and the absence of mean and paltry buildings, which so often destroy the general beauty of a city, is a circumstance which infinitely enhances the architectural splendour of St Petersburg. The houses, though built of brick, are all stuccoed, and the fresh appearance is always preserved by the law, which compels every proprietor to renew the outer wash upon his house once a-year.

Petersburg is built upon several islands, formed by the Neva and its branches, and is divided into twelve districts or quarters. In circumference, it exceeds eighteen English miles, and its greatest diameter is about six miles. As the boundary of every quarter of the city is marked by a branch of the river, or by a canal, the number of bridges is very great. They in fact amount to seventy, one-half of which are of stone, a few of iron, and the rest of wood. No permanent bridge has ever been built over the river Neva itself, since the immense masses of ice which float from Lake Ladoga in the spring prevent the possibility of such an erection, unless by suspension. In winter, the necessity of bridges is obviated by the thick coating of ice with which the river is covered, and in summer three pontoon bridges are constructed to connect the city on the two sides of the Neva. These bridges are both solid and handsome, being composed of lofty pontoons decked and fastened together, and held firm by large anchors. Over them a substantial floor of planks is laid, with a footpath on each side. The principal bridge is called the Isaac Bridge, and is 1250 feet long, and 60 broad. The other two are called respectively the Troitskoï and Voskrésenskoï Bridges, and are 2456 feet, and 1260 feet long. In some parts of the city, the Neva is 3500 feet broad, and it is by far the finest river which flows past any European capital.

The pavement of the streets in Petersburg is by no means good, being generally composed of small stones, perpetually displaced or loosened by the alternations of cold and heat. A few of the principal squares and streets have been macadamized, which, although a considerable improvement, is attended with the inconvenience of increasing the dust of summer, always a great evil in Petersburg. The visit of the late Emperor Alexander to England suggested to him the formation of *trottoirs*, or flagged footways, which are now pretty general in the streets. Previously, the course of the foot-passenger, from the multitude of vehicles and the defective state of the pavement, was to the last degree disagreeable, and to this cause was owing the notion, not now so completely predominant as before, that walking the streets was ignominious.

The principal building in St Petersburg is the Admiralty, which gives its name to the chief division of the city. It is situated on the banks of the Neva, and is 1400 feet in length, and 672 in breadth. Within its area are contained four slips for the construction of the largest, and two for that of the smallest class of vessels of war. It is the centre of the naval department of Russia, and contains a great many collections connected with that service. From the Admiralty branch out three principal streets which are called *Prospectives*, the largest of which, called the Nevskoi Prospective, is two miles long, with a breadth of 180 feet. The quay of the Neva proceeds on each side of the Admiralty likewise, forming a continued line of two miles and a half, furnished with numerous landing steps. This quay is built of granite, and raised ten feet above the level of the water. Along its whole extent is a superb range of public edifices and private mansions, rendering it one of the finest promenades in Europe.

A wide square separates the Admiralty from the Imperial Winter Palace, the length of which on the side next the Neva is 721 feet. This palace was destroyed in the year 1837 by fire, but is intended to be reconstructed. Its style of architecture was very massive, and its interior decorations of the most sumptuous order. The palaces of the Great and Little Hermitage form a continuation of the Winter Palace, with which they were connected by arches thrown across two streets. They presented a continued front of palaces, facing the Neva, of 1596 feet, or nearly a third of an English mile. There is a winter and a summer garden attached to the Palace of the Hermitage, the latter of which, being raised 42 feet above the level of the street, is one of the curiosities of Petersburg. There are several other imperial palaces in the city, of which the Marble and the Taurida are the most celebrated. The Marble Palace, so called from that material being profusely employed in its construction, is on the quay of the Neva, on a line with the Winter Palace. It was originally built for Count Orlof, the favourite of Catherine II., and in the reign of Paul was made the residence of the last of the kings of Poland. The Taurida Palace was built by Potemkin, and is famous in Russian history for the extraordinary entertainment given by him to Catherine, just previous to his final departure from Petersburg to the scene of his miserable death. The Palace of the Grand Duke Michael is one of the finest ornaments of Petersburg. It is of recent construction, not having been finished until the year 1825.

The government buildings in Petersburg are very numerous, amongst which the Senate House is one of the most important. It is situated in the Isaac Square, opposite the Admiralty, and is appropriated to the affairs connected with the Executive, or Directing Senate. The principal duty of this body is to promulgate the laws and edicts of the emperor, and to watch over their execution. It is also the supreme tribunal for appeals, and has extensive judicial prerogatives.

The palace of the *Etat Major* is one of the most distinguished edifices in Petersburg. It contains the principal departments connected with the administration of the army. One of the most interesting divisions of this great institution is that devoted to the preparation of maps of the empire, and of its respective governments, both for military and civil purposes. An immense number of persons is employed on this service, being all military, and kept under military discipline. The progressive steps in the completion of a map, from the first trigonometrical lines to the colouring of the map, are performed by various individuals, with regulated subdivision of labour. Departments for engraving, both on copper and stone, are attached, conducted on the same principles. The maps, when completed, are sold to the public. A very perfect and accurate map of the whole empire, with the divisions into governments, the canals, and other important features of the country, has been completed in 80 sheets, the charge for which is 100 roubles, or two roubles for each sheet, if purchased separately. In this establishment are also manufactured all mathematical instruments which may be requisite in military service, and likewise a press de-

partment for printing military orders, reports, registers, &c.

In the *Etat Major* is a very large hall, composed entirely of cast-iron, for the purpose of containing the military archives of the Russian empire. It is 250 feet long, 100 wide, and from 70 to 80 high. In this incombustible repository are preserved all documents relative to military subjects, from the year 1719, arranged in such admirable order, that any paper that may be wanted can be found in a few seconds. The number of persons employed in the establishment of the Etat Major is 1200, of whom nearly 1000 live in the house, together with 130 women and several children.

The Palace of St Michael, in which the Emperor Paul was assassinated, has never been inhabited by any of the imperial family since that event, and it is now converted into a military school for the education of engineer officers, being styled the "Hotel du Genie." The Old and the New Arsenal, the Foundery, the Post-Office, the Citadel on a small island opposite the Winter Palace, and the Mint, are all buildings of great interest in St Petersburg. In addition to these, are 108 edifices belonging to government, a particular description of which would be tedious and of little use.

The buildings and institutions connected with science and the fine arts in St Petersburg are numerous and distinguished. First in importance is the Imperial Academy of Sciences, situated on the right bank of the Neva, opposite the Admiralty. It was founded by Peter the Great, and has enrolled amongst its members several distinguished men. The reports of its proceedings have been regularly published, and attained high estimation. Its collections are extremely valuable, consisting of a Zoological Museum, a Cabinet of Mineralogy, a collection of dried plants and insects, an Asiatic and Egyptian Museum, a collection of ancient medals and coins, three Cabinets of Asiatic, Russian, and modern medals, and a Cabinet of Curiosities, together with an extensive library. The Cabinet of Peter the Great is also here exhibited, consisting of a suite of apartments, containing several articles the workmanship of his own hands, and a representation of himself, dressed in the costume he wore at the coronation of his empress, Catherine. The Arabian horse he rode at Pultowa, and his two favourite dogs, are stuffed and preserved in this cabinet, besides many of his working tools, and the bas-reliefs he executed in copper representing the contests of Livonia. On the 29th December 1826 (old style), a solemn commemoration of the first secular anniversary of its foundation was held at the Academy, at which the emperor and the imperial family were present.

The Imperial Academy of Fine Arts is a magnificent building on the right bank of the Neva, opposite that part of the granite quay which is called the English Quay. It was founded by the Empress Elizabeth, but its funds were materially augmented by Catherine II. There is a great number of paintings, models from the antique, and casts, in this Academy. Every three years an exhibition takes place of the productions of native artists. A college is attached to the Academy, in which 200 students are educated at the expense of the emperor. These students are maintained as well as educated, and at a certain age are instructed in that particular branch of art which is best fitted for each. Thus, some are painters, others engravers, sculptors, musicians, architects, and mechanics. Those who have distinguished themselves most, are sent to travel in different countries at the emperor's expense.

The "Hotel des Mines," an institution for the education of mining engineers for the service of government and the army, contains very interesting collections of minerals and specimens illustrative of the geological formation of the great empire of Russia. The plans and models of different mines, whether of gold, silver, platina, or iron, are exhibited in great variety, with the multifarious modes of extracting the ore, and working the mines. There are about 300 resident students in the establishment, who receive a classical as well as professional education. From the extraordinary mineral wealth of Russia, this institution is of very great importance, and the advantages arising from it must progressively increase. It was not until the year 1819 that this college for miners was put upon its present efficient footing, though an establishment destined for such an object was commenced by Peter, by whose intelligent mind the value of mineral possessions was duly appreciated. A journal is published by the body of miners, which contains from time to time highly valuable notices of the produce of the different Russian mines.

In mentioning the public institutions of St Petersburg for the promotion of education, it will not be necessary to go into any minute detail, as there is nothing to distinguish them from similar establishments in other countries. The University of St Petersburg, founded by the late Emperor Alexander, is not in so flourishing a condition as some of the other universities in the empire. The Imperial Russian Academy, instituted for the purpose of promoting native literature, and of improving the Russian language, is, in a national point of view, a very praiseworthy and useful establishment. The subject of education occupied the peculiar attention of the late Emperor Alexander, whose endeavours to improve the condition of the empire are allowed to have been very great. The present Emperor Nicholas is likewise stated to be extremely solicitous to promote education, not only amongst those destined for the navy and army, but also amongst the other classes of the people. The female sex have two large institutions for their especial benefit in Petersburg, one of which is styled "The Community of Noble Maidens," consisting of two branches, in each of which are 400 young ladies of the noble and the burgher classes, which are kept separate; and the other is designated the "Institute of Catherine," in which upwards of 300 young ladies are educated, all of the class of nobles. The late empress-mother was the great patroness of these two establishments, and devoted a considerable portion of her time to their superintendence. The memory of that illustrious lady, the widow of the unfortunate Paul, is justly held in great reverence by the Russians.

The number of churches in Petersburg is considerable, though not so numerous as in Moscow. The church of Our Lady of Kazan in the Nevskoi Prospekt, is one of the most striking objects in the capital. The Church and Monastery of St Alexander Nevskoi is likewise celebrated in the descriptions of travellers. It is stated to be erected on the spot where Alexander Yaroslavitch, afterwards named Nevskoi, obtained a victory over the conjoined forces of Sweden and Denmark in 1241. This hero being afterwards canonised, has become one of the most venerated of the Russian saints. Upwards of 4000 pounds weight of silver have been employed in the chapel and shrine dedicated to him within the monastery. There is a cemetery adjoining to it, which contains an immense number of magnificent monuments erected to the memory of the dead. In the church of St Peter and St Paul, erected by Peter the Great, and which stands within the citadel, are deposited the remains of the Russian sovereigns who have died since its erection. The Catholic Church is a very splendid building, of the Corinthian order of architecture; and the English Church, erected for the accommodation of the English residents, is a handsome and substantial edifice. As a proof of the entire toleration which exists in Russia with regard to religious matters, it may be mentioned as a singular fact, that the Nevskoi Prospekt contains seven temples erected to as many different creeds. These are the Russian Cathedral of Our Lady of Kazan, the Catholic Church, an Armenian, a Lutheran, two churches for other Christian dissenters, and a Mahommedan mosque, all within a short distance of each other.

The charitable institutions of Petersburg are very numerous, embracing several military and naval hospitals upon a very large scale, and admirably arranged. The "civil" hospitals, as they are called, are also very numerous; the largest of which is the Bogodeluia Hospital, capable of containing 1400 invalids; but the most distinguished of them is the Hospital for the Poor, founded in 1803, at the instance of the empress-mo-

ther, which, uniting the advantages of an infirmary and dispensary, has been productive of essential good. The consulting and operative surgeon to this establishment, is an Englishman of the name of Beverley, who enjoys a high reputation. There is also a great Foundling Hospital in Petersburg, in exact imitation of the celebrated one at Moscow, which will be found fully described in the notice of that city. The number of children admitted is very considerable. Two large institutions for pregnant women are distinguished in Petersburg, as at Moscow, for the facility with which admission is obtained to them. The infirmaries for diseases of the eye and ear are entitled likewise to notice, from the prevalence of those complaints in Petersburg, and from the number of patients who have been relieved by them. Whilst so many charitable institutions would seem to prove a considerable degree of pauperism in Petersburg, the well-accredited fact of the entire absence of beggars in and about the city appears rather surprising.

To the founder of Petersburg has been erected one of the most astonishing monuments to be found in the world. In the middle of Isaac Square, in front of the Admiralty, is placed a huge block of granite, weighing 1500 tons, and nearly upon the summit is poised a colossal equestrian statue of the great Peter. The statue is of bronze, and represents Peter checking his steed, just as he has reached the top of a precipitous rock, when the horse rearing on his hind legs, the rider looks round upon the city below with an air of calmness and protection. It is intended to be emblematical of the triumph of Peter over nature, and the serpent, which writhes beneath his horse's feet, represents envy herself laid prostrate. The enormous block of granite on which the statue rests, was brought with infinite labour four miles, it being found in a morass at that distance from the city. The work was undertaken by order of Catherine II., and accomplished by Falconet, a French architect. An inscription appears on the rock in bronze characters, in Latin and Russian: "To Peter the First, Catherine the Second, 1782."

The object of Peter the Great in founding St Petersburg was not only to build a capital for his empire, but also to make an emporium for its commerce. Both projects have been successfully realised, and Petersburg is distinguished in Europe as a magnificent metropolis, and as one of its most important commercial towns. The extensive water navigation of Russia admits of the produce of her most distant provinces being brought to St Petersburg, to be there exchanged for the productions of Western Europe. The internal commerce of the country is entirely in the hands of native merchants, foreigners not being allowed to participate in that traffic; but the foreign trade is just as exclusively conducted by strangers. Amongst these, the English merchants form the most important body, both for their wealth and the extensive business they transact. The mode in which purchases are made by the foreign merchants, exhibits an extraordinary reliance upon the honesty of the Russian traders. Half, or perhaps more, of the value of the produce to be brought, is paid in advance, with which the Russian sets out for the interior to make his bargains, and is not heard of again until the shipping season in the spring, when he reappears with the article contracted for. It would seem that very few instances occur in which any breach of faith is perpetrated. The principal articles exported from Petersburg consist of raw produce, namely, copper, flax, hemp, iron, tallow, pot-ashes, and deals, and the imports are colonial produce and manufactured goods. The balance of trade, that is, the value of exports above that of imports, is greatly in favour of Russia. From Peter the Great down to the present emperor, the extension of commerce has been a prominent object with every sovereign, if we except the miserable Paul, who dealt some severe blows at it during his short reign. The late Emperor Alexander presided upon the occasion of opening the new Exchange in Petersburg in 1816, and personally presented each English merchant with a gold medal, as a mark of his esteem for the first commercial nation in the world. This Exchange is a very handsome building in the form of a parallelogram, surrounded by columns of the Doric order, and containing a hall 126 feet long, and 66 wide, in which the merchants assemble every day at three o'clock, for the transaction of business.

The public amusements in St Petersburg are nearly the same as in other large capitals of Europe. Theatres, operas, balls, concerts, abound here as in other parts of the world; and though it is the capital of an empire more Asiatic than European, the manners and customs of the higher orders are essentially the same as those of the same class in other continental towns. The descriptions of early travellers of the unbounded and indiscriminate hospitality of the Russian nobles, are no longer applicable in the same degree, and it is only to strangers who are well recommended that a warm reception is extended. The merchants, the bourgeois or citizens, are a body too small, and of too little general influence, to form a class or middle order; and though the generality of them live in affluence, their time, whether of leisure or business, is passed amongst themselves, in a manner which fails to attract the smallest notice. The great body of the people, the working classes, still maintain many peculiar customs, and indulge in several truly national amusements. Amongst these, the ice-hills erected on the Neva in winter, upon which thousands adventure and slide down from the giddy height, have excited the astonishment of beholders. The festival which takes place on the benediction of the waters of the Neva, is chiefly enjoyed by the lower orders, upon which occasion, and upon the other festivals of the Greek Church, the excesses that mark the celebration of the Carnival in some other parts of Europe are imitated by the Russian serfs.

It is rather singular, that, in a large and splendid capital such as Petersburg, the hotels and public inns should be so very bad. But, upon referring to the state of society, the cause will be easily discovered. Although the Russians are fond of society, it is not in public that they indulge the propensity, for there must at all times be a feeling of insecurity where the police may send their spies and reporters. As all hotels and inns are under their especial *surveillance*, it will be easily imagined that no one goes near them who can avoid doing so; and as the greater part of the strangers who visit Petersburg reside with private families, it is evident enough that the class of "landlords" is not likely to prosper in that city. As a necessary consequence, the accommodations attainable by a foreigner, who is compelled to seek a public resting-place, are both mean and dear. The regulations respecting strangers are not calculated to conciliate their good will. In order to get into the empire, a traveller must bring a passport, signed by some Russian minister in the country from which he comes; for without that piece of formality he will be turned back, whatever may be his business, or however far he may have travelled. When a steam-boat sailed from London, during the summer of 1827, direct to Petersburg, several Englishmen were not permitted to land, from not having provided themselves with the necessary document from the Russian embassy in London. When once within the frontier, a stranger must attend to various formalities, and give many douceurs to the officers of the police departments, in order to enjoy a residence in Petersburg, or any other town of the empire, in peace and quietness. The *valets de place*, or commissioners, offered to his choice as necessary guides during his sojourn, are all connected with the police-office, and act the part of spies on the conduct of a foreigner in full perfection. But the most annoying result of the regulations respecting strangers in Russia, is the difficulty of getting out of the country, after surmounting the difficulty of getting into it. By three successive insertions in the government paper must a traveller, wishing to leave the dominions of the autocrat, proclaim his intention to the world, so that all may have an opportunity to come forward and stop his exit, if any cause, good, bad, or indifferent, exists. After this indispensable preliminary, he is left to fight his way from the

district police-officer, under whose peculiar guardianship he has been during his residence, and whose approbation of his conduct he must obtain, through the Alien Office up to the military governor of the city, who, if all things have been properly conducted, grants the important paper, which enables him to leave the country. In this process, the only effectual mode of smoothing difficulties is to be unsparing in bribes.

The climate of St Petersburg, though embracing extreme points of heat and cold, is not considered unhealthy. The severity of the winter frost, which invariably congeals the rapid waters of the Neva, and even part of the Gulf of Bothnia, may easily be conceived, but its effects are parried by the precautions of the inhabitants. The houses are fitted up with double doors and double windows, through which no current of air can possibly pass; and in every room is placed a stove, which, by means of tubes, communicates with the air of the room, and diffuses an equal warmth throughout, generally averaging 60 degrees of Fahrenheit. Upon going abroad, each person takes care to envelope himself in an ample fur pelisse, a cap of fur, and boots lined with thick flannel. In this costume, with his nose and ears well guarded from the approach of the atmosphere, he mounts his sledge, and flies over the Neva, or along the streets, with an astonishing rapidity. The lower orders cover the body with a *shoob*, or sheep-skin pelisse, girded tight to the waist with a sash; and whilst they envelope the feet and legs with thick coverings, they often leave the neck either wholly or partially bare. This is particularly the case with the drivers of the public sledges, or droskies, who are a very hardy race of fellows, and are much more exposed to the climate than any other class. The first frost at Petersburg occurs generally in September, but sometimes not until the first week in October, and the Neva is usually frozen over about the beginning of November; the river is again free at the beginning of April, and sometimes so early as the 25th of March. Upon an average of 20 years, it is navigable 218 days, and frozen over 147.

The spring may be said scarcely to be known in Petersburg, so rapid is the transition from winter to summer. The heat of summer seldom exceeds 84 degrees of Fahrenheit in the shade; but the quickness of vegetation, after the torpidity of winter, is almost as great as in the tropics. This season is universally described as being extremely agreeable, and one to which the inhabitants look forward with much anxiety. The country around Petersburg offers numberless places to which parties of pleasure may resort; and as the period of enjoyment is short, the eagerness with which all classes seek to participate in its delights, is the more determined. Autumn, if it may be so called, comes on, and rain, mist, fog, and sleet, usurp the place of sunshine, and herald the unbroken severity of winter. The result of 20 years' observations at the Imperial Academy, presents the following as the average of the year's meteorological characteristics:—Fair days 91; completely dull days 118; cloudy 156; of the cloudy and dull days, 106 are rainy, and 73 showery.

From the peculiar situation of St Petersburg, the city is very liable to inundations. These generally occur in November, for which reason that month is particularly feared. Whenever a gale from the west blows for any time at that period, the calamity of an inundation is pretty sure to ensue. The last and greatest of these visitations took place in November 1824. On the night of the 19th (7th o. s.) of that month, signals were given from the Admiralty that the waters had begun to rise, and towards the morning the wind having increased to a hurricane, the inundation advanced with awful rapidity. The water rose to fourteen, and in some places to sixteen feet, with such suddenness as to overwhelm vast numbers of people. Many houses were completely carried off, and the devastation in shops, stores, and warehouses, was complete. The streets were all flooded, and two Cronstadt steamers floated as far as the theatre, in the centre of the town. Animals perished in thousands, and their carcasses covered the streets in all directions. The burial-grounds were swept, and their contents wafted on the flood, to the horror of the spectators. The loss of human life was very considerable, and the destruction of property was estimated at 150,000,000 of roubles. The misery of the population was excessive, for, even after the subsidence of the waters, no adequate supply of food could be procured for two or three days. Many thousands lost all their property, and a subscription to relieve the sufferers was commenced, headed by the Emperor Alexander with one million of roubles.

The population of the Russian metropolis has been progressively increasing since the commencement of the present century. In 1801, Storch makes it 230,000, and in 1827, Granville asserts it to be 312,970, and Weydemeyer 320,000. The proportion of natives to foreigners is estimated at 9 to 1. Besides the city, there is likewise the government of St Petersburg, which includes 848 geographical square miles surrounding the capital, and contains altogether 844,900 inhabitants. Of the places near to Petersburg, the most important is the town and fortress of Cronstadt. It is situated on an island at the mouth of the Neva, twenty miles from Petersburg. A steam-boat sails every morning for Cronstadt during the summer, and returns the same evening, and in winter an equally expeditious mode of reaching it is offered in sledges, which pass over the ice the whole way. It is necessary to have a passport for effecting this visit, which, according to a late traveller (Elliott, 1832), "is always a matter of great importance, and generally embarrassed with unnecessary obstacles for the purpose of extorting money." Cronstadt is well fortified, and defended by almost innumerable cannon. Some small islands surround it, which are likewise covered with batteries, and serve to render almost impossible the approach of a hostile fleet. It is the station for the Russian ships of war, which are built at Petersburg, and brought down to Cronstadt in "camels," which are hollow cases of wood, embracing the keel and hull of the ship, for floating it over the shallows of the river. There are immense barracks at Cronstadt, capable of containing 25,000 sailors and marines, and also a naval hospital upon a large scale. Commercial vessels load and unload their cargoes within the port of Cronstadt, as a sufficient depth of water does not exist as far as Petersburg. The number of Russian merchant ships is extremely small, bearing no proportion to that of English vessels within the harbour.]

CHAPTER II.

JOURNEY FROM PETERSBURG TO MOSCOW.

We set out on the morning of the 3d of April, and arrived with great expedition at Tsarskoselo. Our carriage had been placed upon a *traineau*, or sledge; and another sledge, which followed us, conveyed the wheels. It is worth while to be particular in describing our mode of travelling, that others may derive advantage from it. If the journey is confined to countries only where a sledge road may be had, the common method used by the inhabitants is always the best; but if a passage is to be effected with ease and expedition from one climate to another, some plan must be determined which may secure the traveller from the rigours of the seasons, without impeding his progress by superfluous incumbrance. For this purpose, the kind of carriage called a German *bâtarde* is unquestionably the most convenient. A delineation is given in the work of Reichard, who also mentions the expense of building them in Vienna, where they are made for one-fourth of the money required by the London coach-makers; and they answer every purpose of travelling, full as well as those made in England. This carriage is nothing more than an English chariot with a *dormeuse*, which advances in front, and which should be made sufficiently high to furnish a commodious seat for two persons on the outside, upon the springs. We made the driver always sit upon the trunk in front, but it would be better to provide for him a little chair raised for that purpose. The door of the dormeuse within the carriage lets down upon the seat, and it contains leather cushions, and a

pillow covered with thin leather. The carriage has, besides, an imperial, a well, a sword-case, which may be converted into a small library, and instead of a window behind, a large lamp, so constructed as to throw a strong light without dazzling the eyes of those within. Thus provided, a person may travel night and day, fearless of want of accommodation or houses of repose. His carriage is his home, which accompanies him every where; and if he chooses to halt, or accidents oblige him to stop in the midst of a forest or a desert, he may sleep, eat, drink, read, write, or amuse himself with any portable musical instrument, careless of the frosts of the north, or the dews, the mosquitoes, and vermin, of the south. Over snowy regions, he places his house upon a sledge, and, when the snow melts, upon its wheels, being always careful, where wheels are used for long journies through hot countries, to soak them in water, whenever he stops for the night.

Setting out from Petersburg for the south of Russia, the traveller bids adieu to all thoughts of inns, or even houses with the common necessaries of bread and water. He will not even find clean straw, if he should speculate upon the chance of a bed. Every thing he may want must therefore be taken with him. A pewter tea-pot will become of more importance than a chest of plate, and more so than one of silver, because it will not be stolen, and may be kept equally clean and entire. To this he will add a kettle, a saucepan, the top of which may be used for a dish, tea, sugar, and a large cheese, with several loaves of bread made into rusks, and as much fresh bread as he thinks will keep till he has a chance of procuring more. Then, while the frost continues, he may carry frozen food, such as game, or fish, which being congealed, and as hard as flints, may jolt about among his kettles in the well of the carriage without any chance of injury. Wine may be used in a cold country, but never in a hot, nor even in a temperate climate, while upon the road. In hot countries, if a cask of good vinegar can be procured, the traveller will often bless the means by which it was obtained. When, with a parched tongue, a dry and feverish skin, they bring him bad or good water to assuage his burning thirst, the addition of a little vinegar will make the draught delicious. Care must be taken not to use it to excess, for it is sometimes so tempting a remedy against somnolency, that it is hardly possible to resist using the vinegar without any adulteration of water.*

The palace of Tsarskoselo is twenty-two versts from Petersburg, and the only object worth notice between that city and Novogorod. It is built of brick, plastered over. Before the edifice is a large court, surrounded by low buildings for the kitchens, and other out-houses. The front of the palace occupies an extent of nearly 800 feet, and it is entirely covered, in a most barbarous taste, with columns, and pilasters, and cariatides, stuck between the windows, all of which, in the true style of Dutch gingerbread, are gilded. The whole of the building is a compound of what an architect ought to avoid rather than to imitate. Yet so much money has been spent upon it, and particularly on the interior, that it cannot be passed without notice. It was built by the Empress Elizabeth, and was much the residence of Catherine in the latter part of her life, when her favourites, no longer the objects of a licentious passion, were chosen more as adopted children than as lovers.

In the gardens of this palace, persons who wished to gain an audience of the empress used to place themselves when she descended for her daily walk. A complaint from which she suffered in her legs, made her introduce the very expensive alteration of converting the staircase of the Hermitage at Petersburg into an inclined plane, which offered a more commodious and more easy descent. A similar alteration was introduced at Tsarskoselo, which conducted her from the apartments of the palace into the garden. It was in one of those walks, as Professor Pallas afterwards informed me, that Commodore Billings obtained, by a stratagem, her final order for his expedition to the north-west coast of America. Bezborodko, the minister, although he had received the empress's order, put him off from time to time, not choosing to advance the money requisite for the different preparations, and Billings began to fear the plan would never be put in execution. In the midst of his despondency, Professor Pallas undertook to make the matter known to the empress, and advised Commodore Billings to accompany him to Tsarskoselo. As soon as they arrived, Pallas conducted him to a part of the garden which he knew the empress would frequent at her usual hour, and placing themselves in one of the walks, they had not waited long before she made her appearance. With her usual affability, she entered into conversation with Professor Pallas; and after inquiries respecting his health, asked the name of the young officer, his companion. The professor informed her, and added, "He is the person whom your majesty was pleased to appoint, in consequence of my recommendation, to the command of the expedition destined for the north-west coast of America." "And what," said the empress, "has delayed his departure?" "He waits at this moment your majesty's orders," replied the professor. At this the empress, without any reply, and evidently somewhat ruffled, quickened her pace towards the palace. The next morning the necessary supplies came from the minister, with orders that he should set out immediately.

That the expedition might have been confided to better hands, the public have been since informed by the Secretary Sauer. This Professor Pallas lamented to have discovered when it was too late. But the loss sustained by any incapacity in the persons employed to conduct that expedition, is not equal to that which the public suffered by the sudden recall of the unfortunate Ledyard, which, it is said, would never have happened, but through the jealousy of his own countrymen, whom he chanced to encounter as he was upon the point of quitting the eastern continent for America, and who caused the information to be sent to Petersburg which occasioned the order for his arrest.

The gardens of Tsarskoselo are laid out in the English taste, and therefore the only novelty belonging to them is their situation, so far removed from the nation whose ideas they pretend to represent.

The interior of the building presents a number of spacious and gaudy rooms, fitted up in a style combining a mixture of barbarity and magnificence which will hardly be credited. The walls of one of the rooms are entirely covered with fine pictures, by the best of the Flemish, and by other masters. They are fitted together, without frames, so as to cover on each side the whole of the wall, without the smallest attention to disposition or general effect. But to consummate the *Vandalism* of those who directed the work, when they found a place they could not conveniently fill, the pictures were cut, in order to adapt them to the accidental spaces left vacant. The soldiers of Mummius, at the sacking of Corinth, would have been puzzled to contrive more ingenious destruction of the fine arts. Some of Ostade's best works were among the number of those thus ruined. I was also assured, by authority I shall not venture to name, that a profusion of pictures of the Flemish school were then lying in a cellar of the palace. But the most extraordinary apartment, and that which usually attracts the notice of strangers more than any other, is a room, about thirty feet square, entirely covered on all sides, from top to bottom, with amber—a lamentable waste of

* [At present a diligence, or stage-coach, runs between Petersburg and Moscow, which is described, by Captain Frankland, as a comfortable carriage, but very heavily constructed. It is drawn by eight horses, and where the *chaussée* or macadamised road has been completed, travels at a good pace, but upon the ordinary road is dragged with difficulty as quick as a man might walk. The *chaussée* was commenced by Alexander; and 135 versts (90 miles) left uncompleted at his death, still remain so, under his successor Nicholas. Since the time of Clarke, upon this road at least, better accommodation has been provided for the traveller, though his description remains perfectly applicable to all others in the interior of the empire. (See MORTON's Travels in Russia, page 122.) The entire distance between Moscow and Petersburg is 485 miles (728 versts.) LYALL'S *Itinerary*, vol. II. page 533.]

innumerable specimens of a substance which could nowhere have been so ill employed. The effect produces neither beauty nor magnificence. It would have been better employed even in ornamentiug the heads of Turkish pipes—a custom which consumes the greatest quantity of this beautiful mineral. The appearance made by it on the walls is dull and heavy. It was a present from the King of Prussia. In an apartment prepared for Prince Potemkin, the floor was covered with different sorts of exotic wood interlaid, the expense of which amouuted to 100 roubles for every squared archine. A profusion of gilding appears in many of the other rooms. The ball-room is 140 feet long by 52 feet wide, and two stories high. The walls and pilasters of another apartment were ornamented with lapis lazuli, as well as the tables it contained. The Cabinet of Mirrors is a small room lined with large pier glasses, looking upon a terrace, near which is a covered gallery above 260 feet long. There are various statues about the house and gardens, in marble and in bronze, all without merit. The chapel is entirely of gilded wood, and very richly ornamented.

A small flower garden leads to the bath, which is ornamented with jasper, agates, and statues and columns of marble. The grotto is also adorned in the same way with a number of beautiful products of the mineral kingdom, wrought iuto columns, busts, bas-reliefs, vases, &c.; among others, a vase composed of the precious stones of Siberia. From this grotto is seen a lake, on which appears the rostral column to Orlof, which the empress erected in honour of the naval victory he obtained over the Turks at Tchesmé.

After we left Tsarskoselo, the snow diminished very fast, and our fears of reaching Moscow on sledges increased. But during the night, and part of the morning of the 4th of April, it fell in such abundance, that all trace of the roads disappeared, and we lost our way once or twice before we arrived at Novogorod. The place was half buried in snow, but we managed to get to the cathedral, curious to see the collection of pictures, idols of the Greek church, which that ancient building contains; and which, with many others, dispersed in the cities and towns of Russia, were introduced long before the art of painting was practised in Italy. The knowledge of this circumstance led me to hope that I should make some very curious acquisitions in the country: and upon my first arrival from the Swedish frontier, I had given a few pounds to a Russian officer for his god, which consisted of an oval plate of copper, on which the figure of a warrior was beautifully painted on a gold ground. This warrior proved afterwards to be St Alexander Nevski; and as I advanced through the country to Petersburg, there was hardly a hut, or a post-house, that did not contain one or more paintings upon small panels of wood; the figures of which were represented, after the manner of the earliest specimens of the art, upon a gold ground, and sometimes protected in front by a silver coat of mail, which left only the faces and hands of the images visible. A small attention to the history and character of the Russians will explain the cause.

When the religion of the Greek church was first introduced into Russia, its propagators, prohibited by the second commandment from the worship of carved images, brought with them the pictures of the Saints, of the Virgin, and the Messiah. The earliest churches in the Holy Land had paintings of this kind, which the first Christians worshipped; as may be proved by the remains of them at this time in that country.* To protect these holy symbols of the new faith from the rude but zealous fingers and lips of its votaries, in a country where the arts of multiplying them by imitation were then unknown, they were covered by plates of the most precious metals, which left the features alone visible. As soon as the messengers of the gospel died, they became themselves saints, and were worshipped by their followers. The pictures they had brought were then suspended in the churches, and regarded as the most precious relics. Many of them, preserved now in Russia, are considered as having the power of working miracles. It would then necessarily follow, that with new preachers, new pictures must be required. The Russians, characterised at this day by a talent of imitation, though without a spark of inventive genius, followed, not only the style of the original painting, but the manner of laying it on, and the materials on which it was placed. Thus we find, at the end of the eighteenth century, a Russian peasant placing before his *Bogh* a picture, purchased in the markets of Moscow and Petersburg, exactly similar to those brought from Greece during the tenth; the same stiff representation of figures which the Greeks themselves seem to have originally copied from works in mosaic, the same mode of mixing and laying on the colours on a plain gold surface, the same custom of painting upon wood, and the same expensive covering of a silver coat of mail; when, from the multitude and cheapness of such pictures, the precaution at first used to preserve them is no longer necessary. In other instances of their religion, the copy of sacred relics seems to the Russians as much an object of worship as the original. This will appear by the description of Moscow, in the neighbourhood of which city is a building erected at prodigious expense, in imitation of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem; having exactly the same form, and containing a faithful representation of the same absurdities.

The Cathedral of Novogorod, dedicated to St Sophia, in imitation of the name given to the magnificent edifice erected by Justinian at Constantinople, was built in the eleventh century.* Many of the pictures seem to have been there from the time in which the church was finished, and doubtless were some of them painted long before its consecration, if they were not brought into the couutry with the introduction of Christianity. At any rate, we may consider them as having originated from the source whence Italy derived a knowledge of the art, though prior to its appearance in that country. Little can be said of the merit of any of them. They are more remarkable for singularity than beauty. In the dome of a sort of ante-chapel, as you enter, are seen the representations of monsters with many heads; and such a strange assemblage of imaginary beings, that it might be supposed a pagan rather than a Christian temple. The different representations of the Virgin, throughout Russia, will show to what a pitch of absurdity superstition has been carried. I believe most of them are found in all their principal churches, and their worship forms a conspicuous feature in the manners of the Russians;† but though they are all objects of adoration, they have each of them particular places, in which as tutelary deities they obtain more peculiar reverence; and sometimes small chapels and churches, dedicated particularly to some one of them iudividually. These are, principally, the Virgin of Vladimir; the Virgin with the Bleeding Cheek; and—*spectatum admissi*,

* Among the ruins of some of the most ancient churches in Palestine, I found several curious examples of encaustic painting of a very early date. One of these, from Sephoris, near Nazareth, is now in the possession of the principal librarian of the University of Cambridge, to whom I presented it.

* [It is probable that this cathedral is the oldest in Russia, as it was founded originally by Vladimir the Great in 988. It was first built of stone or brick in 1051 or 1057 by Vladimir Yaroslavitch, Great Duke of Novogorod; and, according to the opinion of the best authorities, part of the original structure yet remains, though it suffered considerably by fire in the year 1340. The form of the church is in rude and humble imitation of Saint Sophia's at Constantinople, being nearly square, though thrown into the form of a Greek cross by the four piers which support the roof.]

† [The great majority of the cathedrals and churches in Russia are dedicated in commemoration of the various events in the lives of the Virgin Mary and of Jesus Christ. Their different names are multiplied in so extravagant a manner that the representations of the Virgin Mary alone have 140 distinct appellations. Some of them are placed on the outside of the churches, and are worshipped by the passengers in the streets. Those to which the greatest reverence is attached are often carried by the priests in great solemnity to the chambers of the sick, and in their progress through the thoroughfares attract the adoration of all classes of the people.—Lyall's *Hist. of Moscow*, p. 156–158, 315.]

risum teneatis?—the Virgin with Three Hands! The authors of the Universal History appropriate this last picture to the church of the convent of the New Jerusalem. I believe it to have been originally painted as a barbarous representation, or symbol, of the Trinity; and therefore it more properly applies to another convent in the neighbourhood of Moscow. The following story has, however, been circulated concerning its history.

An artist, being employed on a picture of the Virgin and Child, found one day, that instead of two hands which he had given to the Virgin, a third had been added during his absence from his work. Supposing some person had been playing a trick with him, he rubbed out the third hand, and, having finished the picture, carefully locked the door of his apartment. To his great surprise, he found the next day the extraordinary addition of a third hand in his picture, as before. He now began to be alarmed; but still concluding it possible that some person had gained access to his room, he once more rubbed out the superfluous hand, and not only locked the door, but also barricaded the windows. The next day, approaching his elaboratory, he found the door and windows fast as he had left them; but to his utter dismay and astonishment, as he went in, there appeared the same remarkable alteration in his picture, the Virgin appearing with three hands regularly disposed about the child. In extreme trepidation, he began to cross himself, and proceeded once more to alter the picture; when the Virgin herself appeared in person, and bade him forbear, as it was her pleasure to be so represented.

Many of those absurd representations are said to be the work of angels. In the Greek church they followed the idols of Paganism, and have continued to maintain their place. They are one of the first and most curious sights which attract a traveller's notice; for it is not only in their churches that such paintings are preserved; every room throughout the empire has a picture of this nature, large or small, called the Bogh, or God, stuck up in one corner; to which every person who enters offers adoration, before any salutation is made to the master or mistress of the house; and this adoration consists in a quick motion of the right hand in crossing, the head bowing all the time in a manner so rapid and ludicrous, that it reminds one of those Chinese mandarin images seen upon the chimney-pieces of old houses, which, when set a-going, continue nodding, for the amusement of old women and children.

CHAPTER III.

NOVOGOROD.

The melancholy ideas excited by the present appearance of Novogorod, have been felt by all travellers. Who has not heard the ancient saying, which went forth in the days of its greatness?* Nomade Slavonians were its founders, about the time the Saxons, invited by Vortigern, first came into Britain. Four centuries after, a motely tribe, collected from the original inhabitants of all the watery and sandy plains around the Finland Gulf, made it their metropolis. Near a thousand years have passed away since Ruric, the Norman, gathering them together at the mouth of the Volchova, laid the foundation of an empire destined to extend over the vast territories of all the Russias; then ascending the river, to the spot where its rapid current rushes from the Ilmen to the Ladoga Lake, he fixed his residence in Novogorod.

In the midst of those intestine divisions which resulted from the partition of the empire at the death of Vladimir, who divided his estates between his twelve sons, there arose three independent princes, and a number of petty confederacies. The seat of government was successively removed from Novogorod to Suzedal, Vladimir, and Moscow. Novogorod adopted a mixed government, partly monarchical and partly republican. In the middle of the thirteenth century it was distinguished by the victories of its Grand Duke, Alexander Nevsky, over the Swedes on the banks of the Neva; and, by its remote situation, escaped the ravages of the Tartars in the fourteenth. In the fifteenth, it submitted to the yoke of Ivan I., whose successor, Ivan II., in the sixteenth, ravaged and desolated the place, carrying away the Palladium of the city, the famous bell, which the inhabitants had dignified with the appellation of *eternal*. But its ruin was not fully accomplished until the building of Petersburg, when all the commerce of the Baltic was transferred to that capital.*

Bodies, *miraculously* preserved, or rather mummied, of saints who were mortal ages ago, are shown in the cathedral of St Sophia. This edifice has been described as one of the most ancient in the country. The first Russian churches were certainly of wood, and their date is not easily ascertained. Christianity was preached to the inhabitants of the Don so early as the time of Justinian. That emperor was zealous in building churches among remote and barbarous people. According to Procopius, he caused a church to be erected among the Abasgi, in honour of the *Theotocos*, and constituted priests among them. The same author also relates, that the inhabitants of Tanaïs earnestly entreated him to send a bishop among them, which was accordingly done. Evagrius Scholasticus has related this circumstance, as recorded by Procopius. But by Tanaïs is said to be intended that stream which runs out of the Mæotis into the Euxine—that is to say, the Cimmerian Bosphorus, or Straits of Taman. The arrival of a bishop so invited, and under such patronage, might be followed by the establishment of a church; and it is probable, from existing documents, as well as the traditions of the people, that this really happened, either on the Asiatic or the European side of those Straits, about that time. The jurisdiction of the province, afterwards annexed to the crown of Russia by Svetoslav I., father of Vladimir the Great, included the Isle of Taman, and the Peninsula of Kertchi. In those districts, therefore, we might be allowed to place the first tabernacles of Christian worship, although, in the distant period of their introduction, the foundation of the Russian empire had scarce been laid. It is pleasing to bring scattered portions of history to bear upon any one point; particularly when, by so doing, the obscurity of some of them may be elucidated. The journey of Olga, wife of Igor, son of Ruric, to Constantinople, after avenging the death of her husband upon the Volga, occurred very early in the annals of that country. "*She went,*" say the compilers of the Modern Universal History, "*for what reason we know not, to Constantinople.*" Yet when it is related that she was baptised there†—that, in consequence of her example, many of her subjects became converts to Christianity—that the Russians, to this day, rank her among their saints, and annually commemorate her festival—the cause of her journey will hardly admit a doubt. The result of it proves incontestibly the in-

* "Quis contra Deos, et magnam Novogordiam?" "Who can resist the Gods, and great Novogorod?"

* [Novogorod was formerly a depôt for the commerce of the Hanse Towns, and *is said* to have had 400,000 inhabitants; a number doubtless greatly exaggerated. At present it has from 4000 to 6000 at most. Although the town itself has escaped the ravages of the Tartars, its great dukes were for many years tributaries of the khans, and did homage to them for their dominions.—Jones, vol. II., and Frankland, vol. II. p. 177.]

† The Emperor, John Zimisces, according to some historians, was her godfather upon this occasion. It has been related, that he became enamoured of the Scythian princess, and proposed marriage, which was refused. The old lady, notwithstanding, was at that time in her sixty-sixth year; for she died at the age of eighty, which happened fourteen years after her baptism. Collateral annals, by discordant chronology, seem to prove that the whole story about the eastern emperor's amorous propensities is founded in error and absurdity. Zimisces was not crowned until Christmas-day A. D. 969. Ten years before this period, *Helena* (which was the name borne by *Olga*, after her baptism) had sent ambassadors to Otho, emperor of the west, desiring missionaries to instruct her people. A mission was consequently undertaken by St Adelbert, bishop of Magdebourg, into Russia, A. D. 962.

troduction of Christianity, and the establishment of churches in Russia, at an earlier period than is generally admitted—namely, the baptism of Vladimir* (A. D. 991.)

The reader is requested to pardon any prolixity in the investigation of this subject. It is materially connected with the history of the fine arts; for with Christianity, the art of painting was introduced into Russia. Some of the most chosen idols of their churches are those curious Grecian pictures, which the first Gospel missionaries brought with them from Constantinople. Their inscriptions often exhibit the Greek characters of those times, and they offer most interesting examples of the art, many centuries before it became known to the enlightened nations of Europe. Nor was the art of painting alone introduced with Christianity into Russia. All they knew of letters, or of any useful and liberal art, for many centuries afterwards, was derived from the same source. The inhabitants of the South Sea Islands can hardly be more savage than were the Russians, when the Gospel was first preached to them. The full accomplishment of this great event certainly did not take place till Vladimir became converted. It was a condition of his marriage with the sister of the Greek emperor; and it is said, that no less than 20,000 of his subjects were christened on the same day. The change effected by this measure was nothing less than a complete revolution in manners and in morals. Vladimir led the way by his example. The Pagan idols, and 800 concubines, were dismissed together, and the twelve sons, which his six wives had borne him, were baptised; churches and monasteries drew around them towns and villages, and civilisation seemed to dawn upon the plains and the forests of Scythia. A memorial of the blessed effects of Christianity, among a people who were scarce removed from the brute creation, seems preserved even in the arms of the government of Novogorod, the district in which it was first established; and the ludicrous manner in which it is typified, is consistent with the barbarity of the people. Two bears, supporters, are represented at an altar upon the ice, with crucifixes crossed before the Bogh, on which is placed a candelabrum with a triple lustre, emblem of the Trinity.

The fortress of Novogorod is large, but of wretched appearance. It was constructed after the plan of the Kremlin at Moscow, towards the end of the fifteenth century, and contains the cathedral. Upon the bridge leading to this fortress from the town, is a small chapel, where every peasant who passes either deposits his candle or his penny. Before this place, which is filled with old pictures of the kind I have described, and which a stranger might really mistake for a picture-stall, devotees, during the whole day, may be seen bowing and crossing themselves. A Russian hardly commits any action without this previous ceremony. If he is to serve as coachman, and drive your carriage, his crossing occupies two minutes before he is mounted. When he descends, the same motion is repeated. If a church is in view, you see him at work with his head and hand, as if seized with St Vitus's dance. If he makes any earnest protestation, or enters a room, or goes out, you are entertained with the same manual and capital exercise. When beggars return thanks for alms, the operation lasts a longer time, and then between the crossing, by way of interlude, they generally touch their forehead to the earth.

The snow increased very fast in our way from Novogorod to Tver, but afterwards we had barely sufficient to pass on, and in some places the earth was bare. The traveller will be more interested in this information than readers at home, and he will of course compare the observation with the date of the journey (April 6th, 7th, and 8th), as the weather in Russia is not subject to those irregular vicissitudes experienced in England. It may generally be ascertained by the calendar.

I do not know what first gave rise to a notion very prevalent, that the road from Petersburg to Moscow is a straight line through forests, except that it was the intention of Peter the Great to have it so made.* The country is generally open, a wide and fearful prospect of hopeless sterility, where the fir and the dwarf birch, which cover even Arctic regions, scarcely find existence. The soil is for the most part sandy, and apparently of a nature to set agriculture at defiance. Towards the latter part of the journey, corn-fields appeared, of considerable extent. What the summer road may be, I am unable to say, but our progress was as devious as possible. In all the province or district of Valdai, the soil is hilly, not to say mountainous; so that what with the undulations of the road itself, from the heaps of drifted snow, and the rising and sinking of the country, our motion resembled that of a vessel rolling in an Atlantic calm. My good friend, Professor Pallas, experienced as rough a journey along this route a few years before. He mentions the delay, and even the danger, to which he was exposed on the Heights of Valdai. So precisely similar were the circumstances of the seasons, that in both cases the snow failed in the moment of arrival in Moscow.

The female peasants of the Valdai have a costume which resembles one in Switzerland. It consists of a shift with full sleeves, and a short petticoat with coloured stockings. Over this, in winter, they wear a pelisse of lamb's wool, as white as the snow around them, lined with cloth, and adorned with gold buttons and lace. The hair of unmarried women, as in most parts of Russia, is braided, and hangs to a great length down their backs. On their heads they wear a handkerchief of coloured silk. When married, the hair is trussed up, and this constitutes the outward mark of a virgin, or a matron. Generally speaking, the traveller may pass over a vast extent of territory without noticing any change in the costume. How very different is the case in Italy, where the mere passage of a bridge, in the same city, as at Naples, leads to a different mode of dress. The male peasants of Russia are universally habited in winter in a jacket made of a sheep's hide, with the wool inwards, a square-crowned red cap, with a circular edge of black wool round the rim, which is very becoming, and appears shadowing the eyes. These, with a long black beard, sandals made of the bark of the birch-tree, and legs bandaged in woollen, complete the dress.

Conical mounds of earth, or tumuli, occur very frequently on this road. The most remarkable may be observed in the stage between Yezolbisky and Valdai, on both sides of the road, but chiefly on the left, and they continue to appear from the latter place to Jedrova. They are common all over the Russian empire; and, indeed, it may be asked, where the country is in which such sepulchral hillocks do not appear.

We had been pestered the whole way from Petersburg by a bell, which the drivers carried, suspended to their belt, but were not aware that it passed as a mark of privilege until we came to Jedrova. Here we saw a poor fellow cudgelled by a police-officer, because he had presumed to carry a bell without a *poderosnoi*,† which is the title to such a distinction.

The whole journey from Petersburg to Moscow offers nothing that will strike a traveller more than the town or village of Jedrova. It consists of one street, as broad as Piccadilly, formed by the gable ends of wooden huts, whose roofs project far over their bases, and terminated by its church. A window in such places is a mark of distinction, and seldom noticed. The houses in general have only small holes, through which, as you drive by, you see a head stuck, as in a pillory.

Upon some of the women I observed such stockings as the Tyrolese wear, covering only the lower part of

* Some authors place this event four years earlier. I have followed the chronology of Du Fresnoy

* When Jonas Hanway (Travels, vol. I. p. 92) passed in 1743, only one hundred miles had been completed according to the original plan, which was to make a bridge of timber for the whole distance of 487 miles. For that space of 100 miles, according to the calculation made by him, no less than 2,100,000 trees were required.

† The imperial order for horses. Those who travel with post-horses carry a bell. It serves as the horn in Germany, to give notice to persons on the road to turn out of the way; such horses being in the service of the crown.

the leg, about the ancle, with a sort of cylinder, formed by spiral hoops of wool.

The forests, for the most part, consist of poor stunted trees, and the road in summer is described as the most abominable that can be passed. It is then formed by whole trunks of trees, laid across, parallel to each other, which occasion such violent jolting, as the wheels move from one to the other, that it cannot be borne without beds placed for the traveller to sit or lie upon.*

We had a very interesting peep into the manners of the peasantry, for which we were indebted to the breaking of our sledge at Poschol. The woman of the house was preparing a dinner for her family, who were gone to church. It consisted of soup only. Presently her husband, a boor, came in, attended by his daughters, with some small loaves of white bread, not larger than a pigeon's egg, which I suppose the priest had consecrated, for they placed them with great care before the Bogh. Then the bowing and crossing began, and they went to dinner, all eating out of the same bowl. Dinner ended, they went regularly to bed, as if to pass the night there, crossing and bowing as before. Having slept about an hour, one of the young women, according to an etiquette constantly observed, called her father, and presented him with a pot of vinegar, or *quass*, the Russian beverage.† The man then rose, and a complete fit of crossing and bowing seemed to seize him, with interludes so inexpressibly characteristic and ludicrous, that it was very difficult to preserve gravity. The pauses of scratching and grunting, with all the attendant circumstances of ventriloquism and eructation—the apostrophes to his wife, to himself, and to his god—were such as drunken Barnaby might have put into Latin, but need not be expressed in English.

The picture of Russian manners varies little with reference to the prince or the peasant. The first nobleman in the empire, when dismissed by his sovereign from attendance upon his person, or withdrawing to his estate in consequence of dissipation and debt, betakes himself to a mode of life little superior to that of brutes. You will then find him throughout the day, with his neck bare, his beard lengthened, his body wrapped in a sheep's hide, eating raw turnips, and drinking quass, sleeping one half of the day, and growling at his wife and family the other. The same feelings, the same wants, wishes, and gratifications, then characterise the nobleman and the peasant; and the same system of tyranny, which extends from the throne downwards, through all the bearings and ramifications of society, even to the cottage of the lowest boor, has entirely extinguished every spark of liberality in the breasts of a people who are all slaves. They are all, high and low, rich and poor, alike servile to superiors; haughty and cruel to their dependents; ignorant, superstitious, cunning, brutal, barbarous, dirty, mean. The emperor canes the first of his grandees; princes and nobles cane their slaves; and the slaves their wives and daughters. Ere the sun dawns in Rûssia, flagellation begins; and throughout its vast empire cudgels are going, in every department of its immense population, from morning until night.*

How forcibly opposed to these characteristics are the manners of the Swedes! In the pleasing recollection of the honesty, the benevolence, the bravery, and all the manly virtues that adorn the breasts of the inhabitants of Sweden, the contrast is, indeed, painfully striking. When I reflect on the long track over which I have passed, and the many examples of human excellence which it has been my lot to witness, I almost repent that I have begun with the journey among the Russians; lest from the statement I am compelled to make, it should be supposed that I have been actuated by other motives than a love of truth.

Vyshnei Voloshok is a place of considerable importance, remarkable for the extensive canals on which the great inland navigation of Russia is carried on. A junction has been formed between the Tvertza and the Msta, uniting, by a navigable channel of at least 5000 versts, the Caspian with the Baltic Sea. I suspect that there is not in the world an example of inland navigation so extensive obtained by artificial means, and with so little labour; for the Volga is navigable almost to its source, and three versts, at the utmost, is all that has been cut through in forming the canal. The merchandise of Astracan, and other parts of the south of Russia, are brought to this place. Above 4000 vessels pass the canal annually. The town, or village, as it is called, is full of buildings and shops. It is spacious, and wears a stately thriving appearance; forming a striking contrast with the miserable places on this road.

At the different stations which occur in the route from Petersburg to Moscow, are buildings appropriated to the emperor's use when he passes. This rarely happens above once in a reign. As there is hardly an instance of accommodation for travellers, no harm would happen to the buildings if they were used for that purpose; neither would the national character suffer by its hospitality. Of course, I speak of what may be done in better times; for when we traversed the country kindness to a stranger, and especially to an Englishman, was a crime of the first magnitude, and might prove the means of a journey to Siberia. It is but justice to make this apology for the conduct of those under the immediate eye of government; at the same time, it must be confessed they made the best use of an opportunity which encouraged them to exaction, plunder, and oppression.

From Vyshnei Voloshok we come to Torshok,† seventy-one versts distant, remarkable for a spring, which is superstitiously venerated, and brings pilgrims from all parts. It has no less than twenty churches, some of which are built of stone, and is a thriving town.

* [This description is still correct as to that part of the road not macadamised. Mr Elliott, who went from Petersburg to Moscow in 1830, describes the motion of the diligence as insupportable in such places, frequently occasioning severe contusions to the passengers. The Russians generally provide themselves with pillows as a palliative to the evils of the journey. (Elliott, p. 324.) The aspect of the country has likewise undergone little change. Captain Frankland's words are singularly expressive. "We saw but little appearance of agriculture in our long and dreary drive over the immense plains of Russia, and but three or four droves of cattle or flocks of sheep during the distance from the capital of the north to that of the centre. The people in general appeared to be in utter idleness. The population, both male and female, infant and adult, is hideous in the extreme, more particularly the softer sex."—Vol. II. p. 183.]

† It is made by mixing flour and water together, and leaving it till it has fermented and turned sour. The flavour is like that of vinegar and water. It looks thick, and is very unpleasing to strangers, but by use we became fond of it; and in the houses of the nobles, where attention is paid to its brewing, it is esteemed a delicacy, particularly in summer.

* [This picture must be considered overcharged, and taken rather as the exuberance of the learned professor's talents for satire than as strictly correct. Some of the Russian nobility are ignorant sensual beings, to whom the description may in part apply; but the majority of that order are well educated, and many of them distinguished for literary and scientific attainments. The power they possess over their serfs is frequently abused, though this species of tyranny is far from being an universal characteristic. An opportunity will hereafter occur to revert to this topic.

The "raw turnip" spoken of by Dr Clarke is supposed to refer to the custom of eating slices of radish at breakfast, and when the dram or *schall* is taken before dinner. *Quass* or *kvass* appears to have been early an usual beverage in Russia, as it is mentioned by Giles Fletcher 250 years ago. He says (Russe Commonwealth, p. 112. A. D. 1591), "Their common drink is *mead*; the poorer sort use water and thinne drinke called *quasse*, which is nothing els but water turned out of his wittes, with a little branne meashed with it." It is stated by Dr Lyall to be a pleasant and healthy drink.]

† [Torshok, or Torjok, is famous for the manufacture of shoes and sashes embroidered with gold and silver, and for that peculiar mode of preparing leather, which in every country gives the name of *Russian leather* to such as has undergone the process. This consists in tanning the leather with the bark of oak, and colouring it red with cochineal, a small insect gathered on the opuntia, and dried. A vegetable oil is added, which communicates its peculiar odour.]

At Tver, sixty-three versts farther, there is a decent inn. A shop is also annexed to it, as it often happens in all the northern countries of Europe. This shop is kept by Italians, natives of the Milanese territory, a vagrant tribe, whose industry and enterprise carry them from the Lake of Como to the remotest regions of the earth. I have seen them in all countries, and even in Lapland. Generally they carry a large basket, covered by an oil-skin, containing cheap coloured prints, mirrors, thermometers, and barometers. They are always men of ingenuity, of uncommon perseverance, industry, and, I may add, of honesty. Living with the most scrupulous economy, they collect, after many years of wandering, their hard earnings, with which they return to settle in the land of their fathers, and to send out an offspring as nomade [or wandering] as themselves.

At Tver we beheld the Volga, and not without considerable interest; for though bound in "thick-ribbed ice," and covered with snow, the consciousness of its mighty waters, navigable almost to their source, rolling through a course of 4000 versts in extent, bearing wealth and plenty, is one of the most pleasing reflections. It seems to connect us with the Caspian, and the remote tribes of those nations, so little known, who dwell upon its shores.

The situation of Tver upon the lofty banks of the Volga, is very grand. It has a number of stone buildings; and its shops, as well as churches, merit particular regard. The junction of the Volga and the Tvertza is near the Street of Millions. Pallas speaks of the delicious sterlet taken from the Volga, with which travellers are regaled in this town, at all seasons of the year.

The journey from Tver to Moscow in the winter, with a *kibitki*, is performed in fifteen hours. The road is broad, and more straight than in the former route from Petersburg. But in certain seasons, such as those of melting snow, it is as bad as possible. In the second stage from Tver, between the sixth and seventh verst from the post-house on the left hand, appeared an entire group of those ancient tumuli before mentioned. They are so perfect in their forms, and so remarkably situated, that they cannot escape notice. I endeavoured to learn of the peasants if they had any tradition concerning them. All the information they gave me was, that they were constructed beyond all memory, and believed to contain bodies of men slain in battle. A notion, less reasonable, although common to countries widely distant from each other, is, that such mounds are the tombs of giants. Thus, on the hills near Cambridge, two are shown as the tombs of Gog and Magog. And the tomb of Tityus, the most ancient of all those mentioned in the History of Greece, is described by Homer* as a mound of earth raised over the spot on which that giant fell, warring against the gods.

Eighty-three versts from Tver we came to a small settlement between two hills, which is marked in the Russian map as a town, and called Klin. It hardly merits such distinction. On the right, as we left it, appeared one of those houses constructed for the accommodation of the Empress Catherine on her journey to the Crimea.

The rising towers and spires of Moscow greeted our eyes six versts before we reached the city. The country around it is flat and open; and the town, spreading over an immense district, equals, by its majestic appearance, that of Rome when beheld at an equal distance. As we approached the barrier of Moscow, we beheld on the left the large palace of Petrovsky, built of brick-work. It wears an appearance of great magnificence, though the style of architecture is cumbrous and heavy. It was erected for the accommodation of the Russian sovereigns during their visits to Moscow; the inhabitants of which city pretend that none of them durst take up a lodging within its walls, being kept much more in awe of their subjects than they are at Petersburg. It is said the Empress Catherine used to call Moscow her little haughty republic. This palace is about four versts from the city.

Arriving at the barrier, we were some time detained during the examination of our passports. This entrance to the city, like most of the others, is a gate with two columns, one on each side, surmounted by eagles. On the left is the guard-house. Within this gate a number of slaves were employed removing the mud from the streets, which had been caused by the melting of the snow. Peasants with their kibitkis,* in great numbers, were leaving the town. Into these kibitkis, the slaves amused themselves by heaping as much of the mud as they could throw in, unperceived by the drivers, who sat in front. The officer appointed to superintend their labour chanced to arrive and detect them in their filthy work, and we hoped he would instantly have prohibited such an insult from being offered to the poor men. His conduct, however, only served to afford a trait of the national character. Instead of preventing any further attack upon the kibitkis, he seemed highly entertained by the ingenuity of the contrivance; and, to encourage the sport, ordered every peasant to halt, and to hold his horse, while they filled his kibitki with the mud and ordure of the streets, covering with it the provisions of the poor peasants, and whatever else their kibitkis might contain, with which they were going peaceably to their wives and families. At last, to complete their scandalous oppression, they compelled each peasant, as he passed, to sit down in his kibitki, and then they covered him also with the black and stinking mud. At this unexampled instance of cruelty and insult, some of the peasants, more spirited than the rest, ventured to murmur. Instantly, blows, with a heavy cudgel, on the head and shoulders, silenced the poor wretches' complaints. Before this began, the two sentinels at the gate had stopped every kibitki, as it passed, with a very different motive. First, a loud and menacing tone of voice seemed to indicate some order of government; but it was quickly silenced, and became a whisper, in consequence of a small piece of money being slipped into their hands by the peasants, when they passed on without further notice. If the practice continues, the post of sentinel at a Russian barrier must be more profitable than that of a staff-officer in the service. I was witness to upwards of fifty extorted contributions of this nature in the course of half an hour, when the plunder ended as has been described.

A miserable whiskered figure on horseback, I believe intended for a dragoon, was now appointed to conduct us to the commandant's; and here the podcrosnoi, which we had *bought* of the emperor in Petersburg, together with our other passports, underwent a second examination. The snow was by this time entirely melted, and the sledge upon which our carriage moved was dragged over the stones by six horses, with so much difficulty, that at last the drivers gave it up, and declared the carriage would break, or the horses drop, if we compelled them to advance. The dragoon said we must take every thing, exactly as we arrived, to the commandant's, and proceed sitting in the carriage. At the same time he threatened the peasants with a flagellation; and giving one of them a blow over his loins, bade him "halt at his peril." Another effort was of course made, and the sledge flew to pieces. It was highly amusing to observe the dilemma into which the dragoon was now thrown, as it was not probable either his menaces or his blows would again put the carriage in motion. A drosky was procured, on which we were ordered to sit, and thus proceeded to the commandant. From the commandant we were next ordered to the intendant of the police. And all this did not save us from the visits and the insolence of two or three idle officers, lounging about as spies, who entered our apartments, examined every thing we had, and asked a number of frivolous and impertinent questions, with a view

* Pausanias saw it in Phocis, at the base of Parnassus, twenty stadia from Chæronea, where I found it in the year 1801. It is one of those monuments which defy time—a lofty conical mound. The story of Homer, concerning its origin, is still related by the natives of the country.

* The kibitki is the old Scythian waggon. In some parts of Tartary the top takes off, and at night becomes a tent. Hence the name given by the Russians to the tents of the Calmucks and Nogais; both of which they call kibitki.

to extort money. Some of them found their way even into our bed-rooms when we were absent, and gave our servant sufficient employment to prevent them from indulging a strong national tendency to pilfer—a species of larceny which actually took place afterwards, committed by persons much their superiors in rank.

The accommodation for travellers is beyond description bad, both in Petersburg and Moscow. In the latter, nothing but necessity would render them sufferable. They demand three roubles a-day for a single room, or kennel, in which an Englishman would blush to keep his dogs. The dirt on the floor may be removed only with an iron hoe, or a shovel. These places are entirely destitute of beds. They consist of bare walls, with two or three old stuffed chairs, ragged, rickety, and full of vermin. The walls themselves are still more disgusting, as the Russians load them with the most abominable filth.

In thus giving the result of impressions made on entering this remarkable city, I might appeal to some of the first families in the empire for the veracity of my statement; but such a test of their liberality would materially affect their safety. I shall, therefore, unreservedly proceed to relate what I have seen, in that confidence which a due regard to truth will always inspire. Moscow contains much worth notice—much that may compensate for the fatigue and privation required in going thither—for the filthiness of its hotels, the depravity of its nobles, and the villany of its police.

CHAPTER IV.

MOSCOW.

There is nothing more extraordinary in this country than the transition of the seasons. The people of Moscow have no spring—winter *vanishes*, and summer *is!* This is not the work of a week, or a day, but of one instant; and the manner of it exceeds belief. We came from Petersburg to Moscow in sledges. The next day, snow was gone. On the 8th of April, at mid-day, snow beat in at our carriage windows. On the same day, at sunset, arriving in Moscow, we had difficulty in being dragged through the mud to the commandant's. The next morning the streets were dry, the double windows had been removed from the houses, the casements thrown open, all the carriages were upon wheels, and the balconies filled with spectators. Another day brought with it twenty-three degrees of heat of Celsius, when the thermometer was placed in the shade at noon.

We arrived at the season of the year in which this city is most interesting to strangers. Moscow is in every thing extraordinary; as well in disappointing expectation as in surpassing it—in causing wonder and derision, pleasure and regret. Let me conduct the reader back with me again to the gate by which we entered, and thence through the streets. Numerous spires, glittering with gold, amidst burnished domes and painted palaces, appear in the midst of an open plain, for several versts before you reach this gate. Having passed, you look about, and wonder what is become of the city, or where you are, and are ready to ask, once more, "How far is it to Moscow?" They will tell you "This is Moscow!" and you behold nothing but a wide and scattered suburb, huts, gardens, pig-sties, brick walls, churches, dunghills, palaces, timber-yards, warehouses, and a refuse, as it were, of materials sufficient to stock an empire with miserable towns and miserable villages. One might imagine all the states of Europe and Asia had sent a building, by way of representative, to Moscow: and under this impression, the eye is presented with deputies from all countries holding congress;—timber-huts from regions beyond the Arctic; plastered palaces from Sweden and Denmark, not whitewashed since their arrival; painted walls from the Tyrol; mosques from Constantinople; Tartar temples from Bucharia; pagodas, pavilions, and virandas, from China; cabarets from Spain; dungeons, prisons, and public offices, from France; architectural ruins from Rome; terraces and trellisses from Naples; and warehouses from Wapping.

Having heard accounts of its immense population, you wander through deserted streets. Passing suddenly towards the quarter where the shops are situated, you might walk upon the heads of thousands. The daily throng is there so immense, that, unable to force a passage through it, or assign any motive that might convene such a multitude, you ask the cause, and are told that it is always the same. Nor is the costume less various than the aspect of the buildings; Greeks, Turks, Tartars, Cossacks, Chinese, Muscovites, English, French, Italians, Poles, Germans, all parade in the habits of their respective countries.

We were in a Russian inn, a complete epitome of the city itself. The next room to ours was filled by ambassadors from Persia. In a chamber beyond the Persians, lodged a party of Kirgisians—a people yet unknown, and any one of whom might be exhibited in a cage, as some newly-discovered species. They had bald heads, covered by conical embroidered caps, and wore sheep's hides. Beyond the Kirgisians lodged a *nidus* of Bucharians, wild as the asses of Numidia. All these were ambassadors from their different districts, extremely jealous of each other, who had been to Petersburg, to treat of commerce, peace, and war. The doors of all our chambers opened into one gloomy passage, so that sometimes we all encountered, and formed a curious masquerade. The Kirgisians and Bucharians were best at arm's length; but the worthy old Persian, whose name was Orazai, often exchanged visits with us. He brought us presents, according to the custom of his country; and was much pleased with an English pocket-knife we had given him, with which he said he should shave his head. At his devotions, he stood silent for an hour together, on two small carpets, barefooted, with his face towards Mecca; holding, as he said, intellectual converse with Mahomet.

Orazai came from Tarky, near Derbent, on the western shore of the Caspian. He had with him his nephew, and a Cossack interpreter from Mount Caucasus. His beard and whiskers were long and grey, though his eyebrows and eyes were black. On his head he wore a large cap of fine black wool. His dress was a jacket of silk, over which was thrown a large loose robe of the same materials edged with gold. His feet were covered with yellow Morocco slippers, which were without soles, and fitted like gloves. All his suite joined in prayer, morning and evening; but the old man continued his devotions long after he had dismissed his attendants. Their poignards were of such excellent iron, that our English swords were absolutely cut by them. Imitations of these poignards are sold in Moscow, but of worse materials than the swords from England. When they sit, which they generally do during the whole day, they have their feet bare. Orazai was very desirous that we should visit Persia; and taking out a reed, and holding it in his left hand, he began to write from right to left, putting down our names, and noting the information we gave him of England. Afterwards he wrote his own name in fair Persian characters, and gave it to me, as a memorial by which he might recognise me if we ever met in Persia.

Upon the journey, they both purchased and sold slaves. He offered an Indian negro, who acted as his cook, for 1200 roubles. An amusing embarrassment took place whenever a little dog of mine found his way into the ambassador's room, in search of me. The Persians immediately drew up their feet, and hastily caught up all their clothes, retiring as far back as possible upon their couches. They told us, that if a dog touches even the skirt of their clothing, they are thereby defiled, and cannot say their prayers without changing every thing, and undergoing complete purification. His slaves sometimes played the *balalaika*, or guitar with two strings. The airs were very lively, and not unlike our English hornpipe. The ambassador's nephew obliged us by exhibiting a Persian dance; which seemed to consist of keeping the feet close together, hardly ever lifting them from the ground, and moving slowly to quick measure

round the room. They drink healths as we do, and eat with their hands like the Arabs, all out of one dish, which is generally of boiled rice. If they eat meat, it is rarely any other than mutton, stewed into a soup. The young man used to drink the Russian beverage of hydromel, a kind of mead; and sometimes, but rarely, smoked. The ambassador never used a pipe, which surprised me, as the custom is almost universal in the east. Their kindness to their slaves is that of parents to children; the old man appearing, like another Abraham, the common father of all his attendants. The dress of their interpreter, who was of the Cossacks of the Volga, though stationed on Mount Caucasus, in the territories of the Circassians, was very rich. It consisted of a jacket of purple cloth lined with silk, and a silk waistcoat, both without buttons; a rich shawl round his waist; very large trousers of scarlet cloth; and a magnificent sabre.

Ambassadors of other more oriental hordes drove into the courtyard of the inn from Petersburg. The emperor had presented each of them with a barouche. Never was any thing more ludicrous than their appearance. Out of respect to the sovereign, they had maintained a painful struggle to preserve their seat, sitting cross-legged like Turks. The snow having melted, they had been jolted in this manner over the trunks of trees, which form a timber causeway between Petersburg and Moscow, so that, when taken from their fine new carriages, they could hardly crawl, and made the most pitiable grimaces imaginable. A few days after coming to Moscow, they ordered all the carriages to be sold for whatever sum any person would offer.

But it is time to leave our oriental friends and fellow-lodgers, that we may give an account of the ceremonies of Easter, during the preparations for which we had the good fortune to arrive. The people of Moscow celebrate the *Pâque* [or Passover] with a degree of pomp and festivity unknown to the rest of Europe. The most splendid pageants of Rome do not equal the costliness and splendour of the Russian church. Neither could Venice, in the midst of her carnival, ever rival in debauchery and superstition, in licentiousness and parade, what passes during this season in Moscow.*

It should first be observed, there are no people who observe Lent with more scrupulous and excessive rigour than the Russians. Travelling the road from Petersburg to Moscow, if at any time, in poor cottages where the peasants appeared starving, I offered them a part of our dinner, they would shudder at the sight of it, and cast it to the dogs, dashing out of their children's hands, as an abomination, any food given to them, and removing every particle that might be left entirely from their sight. In drinking tea with a Cossack, he not only refused to have milk in his cup, but would not use a spoon that had been in the tea offered him with milk, although wiped carefully in a napkin, until it had passed through scalding water. The same privation prevails among the higher ranks; but in proportion as this rigour has been observed, so much the more excessive is the degree of gluttony and relaxation, when the important intelligence that "*Christ is risen*" has issued from the mouth of the archbishop. During Easter, they run into every kind of excess, rolling about drunk the whole week, as if rioting, debauchery, extravagance, gambling, and drinking, were as much a religious observance as starving had been before, and that the same superstition which kept them fasting during Lent, had afterwards instigated them to the most beastly excesses.

Even their religious customs are perfectly adapted to their climate and manners. Nothing can be contrived with more ingenious policy to suit the habits of the Russians. When Lent fasting begins, their stock of frozen provisions is either exhausted, or unfit for use, and the interval which takes place allows sufficient time for procuring, killing, and storing, the fresh provisions of the spring. The night before the famous ceremony of the Resurrection, all the markets and shops of Moscow are seen filled with flesh, butter, eggs, poultry, pigs, and every kind of viand. The crowd of purchasers is immense. You hardly meet a foot-passenger who has not his hands, nay his arms, filled with provisions, or a single drosky that is not ready to break down beneath their weight.

The first ceremony which took place previous to all this feasting, was that of the *Pâque Fleuries*, or Palm Sunday. On the eve of this day all the inhabitants of Moscow resort, in carriages, on horseback, or on foot, to the Kremlin, for the purchase of palm-branches, to place before their Boghs, and to decorate the sacred pictures in the streets, or elsewhere. It is one of the gayest promenades of the year. The governor, attended by the *maître de police*, the commandant, and a train of nobility, go in procession, mounted on fine horses. The streets are lined by spectators, and cavalry are stationed on each side to preserve order. Arriving in the Kremlin, a vast assembly, bearing artificial bouquets and boughs, are seen moving here and there, forming the novel and striking spectacle of a gay and moving forest. The boughs consist of artificial flowers, with fruit. Beautiful representations of oranges and lemons in

* [Besides the Easter festival, the Russians observe several others. Each Wednesday and Friday is nominally a fast day; but the four great annual fasts, namely, that of the Virgin, comprising the first fifteen days of August, and those of Whitsuntide, Christmas, and Lent, are rigidly observed by all zealous Christians. The two last of these continue six and seven weeks respectively. A singular exception is made in favour of nobles, soldiers, and most of the employés of government, who are required to fast during the two last weeks only, whilst the imperial family contents itself with an abstinence of only seven days.

One of the most extraordinary of the religious observances of the Russians, is the ceremony of blessing the waters of the Neva, which takes place on the 6th of January, old style, at St Petersburg. On this occasion the archbishop, or metropolitan, performs the service, attended by a concourse of priests, the emperor and his family, the nobility, and a countless multitude of people. The Marquis of Londonderry, in his late visit to St Petersburg, had occasion to witness this remarkable ceremony, which he thus describes in his travels:—"We left the palace and walked in solemn procession amongst the mass of the inhabitants of St Petersburg, without cloaks, and bare-headed, in splendid uniforms and diamond decorations, in cordons of all colours, and in uniforms of all classes and descriptions, in one of the most pitiless snow-storms that ever descended from the heavens, along the terrace and quays of the Neva, for a considerable distance, until we were opposite the windows of the empress, where her imperial majesty and her ladies were assembled. We then turned to the Neva, and proceeded on the ice to a temple which was erected on the river. The clergy and the heads of the cortége assembled around and within it. A loud mass was then sung; at its conclusion, the metropolitan, taking off his upper garments, and seizing a large basin and tankard, descended a staircase leading from the inside of the temple to the water, a large hole having been made in the ice under the temple. His eminence shortly appeared from below, having blessed the waters; and bearing them in the jug and salver, he proceeded to the emperor, who plunged his hands and face into the vessel; then the grand priest, dipping a brush into the water, sprinkled his imperial majesty all over, invoking at the same time the blessing of heaven on Russia and its monarch. The metropolitan next proceeded to sprinkle and give his benediction to all the standards and colours which had been collected round the temple, and afterwards to the officers, civil and military, who were besprinkled in a similar manner. During this period, salutes of artillery from the fortress continued to be discharged, but the multitude remained in breathless awe and silence. One of the officiating clergy had been dispatched, as soon as the metropolitan had blessed the waters of the Neva, to the empress within the palace, bearing vessels and goblets for her imperial majesty and the ladies, filled with the holy water; and when the procession resumed its way back to the palace, the whole populace rushed to the temple to drink or to touch the waters. It is difficult (continues his lordship) to account for the extreme superstition which pervades the lower class of Russians, even to this day, with regard to this ceremony. Children that are born on the night preceding this consecration, are sent with their nurses, and plunged into this hole under the ice; and it is believed, if they endure it (which many do not), that they will be free from every danger through life. The little ones occasionally perish from the effects of this experiment, and in some instances the frozen hands of those who plunge them under the waters are not able to hold them, when, slipping from their grasp, they perish, and are immediately considered as angels on high."]

wax are sold for a few *copeeks* [or halfpence] each, and offer a proof of the surprising ingenuity of this people in the arts of imitation. Upon this occasion, every person who visits the Kremlin, and would be thought a true Christian, purchases one or more of the boughs, called palm-branches; and in returning, the streets are crowded with droskies, and all kinds of vehicles, filled with devotees, holding in their hands one or more palm-branches, according to the degree of their piety, or the number of Boghs in their houses.*

The description often given of the splendour of the equipages in Moscow but ill agrees with their appearance during Lent. A stranger, who arrives with his head full of notions of Asiatic pomp and Eastern magnificence, would be surprised to find narrow streets, execrably paved, covered by mud or dust; wretched-looking houses on each side; carriages drawn, it is true, by six horses, but such cattle!—blind, lame, old, out of condition, of all sizes and all colours, connected by rotten ropes and old cords, full of knots and splices; on the leaders and on the box, figures that seem to have escaped from the galleys; behind, a lousy, ragged lackey, or perhaps two, with countenances exciting more pity than derision, and the carriage itself like the worst of the night-coaches in London. But this external wretchedness, as far as it concerns the equipages of the nobles, admits of some explanation. The fact is, that a dirty, tattered livery, a rotten harness, bad horses, and a shabby vehicle, constitute one part of the privation of the season. On Easter Monday the most gaudy but fantastic buffoonery of splendour fills every street in the city. The emperor, it is true, in his high consideration for the welfare and happiness of his subjects, deemed it expedient to adapt the appearance to the reality of their wretchedness; and in restraining the excessive extravagance of the people of Moscow, evinced more wisdom than the world have given him credit for possessing.

The second grand ceremony of this season takes place on Thursday before Easter, at noon, when the archbishop washes the feet of the apostles. This we also witnessed. The priests appeared in their most gorgeous apparel. Twelve monks, designed to represent the twelve apostles, were placed in a semicircle before the archbishop. The ceremony is performed in the cathedral, which is crowded with spectators. The archbishop performing all and much more than is related of our Saviour in the thirteenth chapter of St John, takes off his robes, girds up his loins with a towel, and proceeds to wash the feet of them all, until he comes to the representative of Peter, who rises; and the same interlocution takes place between him and the archbishop which is said to have taken place between our Saviour and that apostle.

The third, and most magnificent ceremony of all, is celebrated two hours after midnight, in the morning of Easter Sunday. It is called the Ceremony of the Resurrection, and certainly exceeded every thing of the kind celebrated at Rome, or anywhere else. I have not seen so splendid a sight in any Roman Catholic country; not even that of the Benediction by the Pope during the holy week.

At midnight, the great bell of the cathedral tolled. Its vibrations seemed the rolling of distant thunder; and they were instantly accompanied by the noise of all the bells in Moscow. Every inhabitant was stirring, and the rattling of carriages in the streets was greater than at noon-day. The whole city was in a blaze; for lights were seen in all the windows, and innumerable torches in the streets. The tower of the cathedral was illuminated from its foundation to its cross. The same ceremony takes place in all the churches; and what is truly surprising, considering their number, it is said they are all equally crowded.

We hastened to the cathedral, which was filled with a prodigious assembly of all ranks and sexes, bearing lighted wax tapers, to be afterwards heaped as vows on the different shrines. The walls, ceilings, and every part of this building, is covered by the pictures of saints and martyrs. In the moment of our arrival the doors were shut; and on the outside appeared Plato, the archbishop, preceded by banners and torches, and followed by all his train of priests, with crucifixes and censers, who were making three times, in procession, the tour of the cathedral; chaunting with loud voices, and glittering in sumptuous vestments, covered by gold, silver, and precious stones. The snow had not melted so rapidly in the Kremlin as in the streets of the city; and this magnificent procession was therefore constrained to move upon planks over the deep mud which surrounded the cathedral. After completing the third circuit, they all halted opposite the great doors, which were shut; and the archbishop, with a censer, scattered incense against the doors, and over the priests. Suddenly those doors were opened, and the effect was beyond description great. The immense throng of spectators within, bearing innumerable tapers, formed two lines, through which the archbishop entered, advancing with his train to a throne near the centre. The profusion of lights in all parts of the cathedral, and, among others, of the enormous chandelier which hung from the centre, the richness of the dresses, and the vastness of the assembly, filled us with astonishment. Having joined the suite of the archbishop, we accompanied the procession, and passed even to the throne, on which the police officers permitted us to stand, among the priests, near an embroidered stool of satin placed for the archbishop. The loud chorus, which burst forth at the entrance to the church, continued as the procession moved towards the throne, and after the archbishop had taken his seat; when my attention was for a moment called off, by seeing one of the Russians earnestly crossing himself with his right hand, while his left was employed in picking my companion's pocket of his handkerchief.

Soon after, the archbishop descended, and went all round the cathedral; first offering incense to the priest, and then to the people as he passed along. When he had returned to his seat, the priests, two by two, performed the same ceremony, beginning with the archbishop, who rose and made obeisance, with a lighted taper in his hand. From the moment the church doors were opened, the spectators had continued bowing their heads and crossing themselves; insomuch, that some of the people seemed really exhausted, by the constant motion of the head and hands.

I had now leisure to examine the dresses and figures of the priests, which were certainly the most striking I ever saw. Their long dark hair, without powder, fell down in ringlets, or straight and thick, far over their rich robes and shoulders. Their dark thick beards, also, entirely covered their breasts. On the heads of the archbishop and bishops were high caps, covered with gems, and adorned by miniature paintings, set in jewels, of the Crucifixion, the Virgin, and the Saints. Their robes of various-coloured satin were of the most costly embroidery; and even on these were miniature pictures set with precious stones. Such, according to the consecrated legend of ancient days, was the appearance of the high-priests of old, Aaron and his sons, holy men, standing by the tabernacle of the congregation in fine raiments, the workmanship of "Bezaleel, the son of Uri, the son of Hur, of the tribe of Judah." It is said there is a convent in Moscow where the women are entirely employed in working dresses for the priests.

* [In former times the ceremonies observed on Palm Sunday were more solemn. In a grand procession was represented the entry of our Saviour into Jerusalem. The patriarch, or chief pontiff, was seated on a horse, dressed up as an ass, which was led by the sovereign or great duke, accompanied by his councillors. The archbishops, bishops, priests, and monks, bearing crosses, banners, and images, followed, and surrounded the patriarch. Troops of singing boys and men chanted the hosannas. The nobility, merchants, and all persons in office, took part in the procession, bearing palm-branches in their hands. The people stood around bowing and crossing themselves, as the patriarch, with a diamond cross in his hand, gave them his benediction. A full account of this magnificent spectacle is given by Olearius, as witnessed by him on the 10th April 1636, and by Collins in his Present State of Russia, 1671. When Peter the Great abolished the patriarchate in 1721, the procession ceased to take place.]

After two hours had been spent in various ceremonies, the archbishop advanced, holding forth a cross, which all the people crowded to embrace, squeezing each other nearly to suffocation. As soon, however, as their eagerness had been somewhat satisfied, he retired to the sacristy; where putting on a plain purple robe, he again advanced, exclaiming three times, in a very loud voice, "Christ is risen!"

The most remarkable part of the solemnity now followed. The archbishop, descending into the body of the church, concluded the whole ceremony by crawling round the pavement on his hands and knees, kissing the consecrated pictures, whether on the pillars, the walls, the altars, or the tombs—the priests and all the people imitating his example. Sepulchres were opened, and the mummied bodies of incorruptible saints exhibited, all of which underwent the same general kissing.

Thus was Easter proclaimed; and riot and debauchery instantly broke loose. The inn in which we lodged became a Pandemonium. Drinking, dancing, and singing, continued through the night and day. But in the midst of all these excesses, quarrels hardly ever took place. The wild, rude riot of a Russian populace is full of humanity. Few disputes are heard—no blows are given—no lives endangered, but by drinking. No meetings take place of any kind, without repeating the expressions of peace and joy, "*Christos voscress!*"—"Christ is risen!" to which the answer always is the same, "*Vo istiney voscress!*"—"He is risen indeed!"

On Easter Monday begins the presentation of the Paschal eggs: lovers to their mistresses, relatives to each other, servants to their masters, all bring ornamented eggs. Every offering at this season is called a Paschal egg. The meanest pauper in the street, presenting an egg, and repeating the words "*Christos voscress*," may demand a salute even of the empress. All business is laid aside; the upper ranks are engaged in visiting, balls, dinners, suppers, masquerades; while boors fill the air with their songs, or roll drunk about the streets. Servants appear in new and tawdry liveries, and carriages in the most sumptuous parade.

In the midst of this uproar, I made myself as much like a Russian as possible, and went in a *caftan* [a species of ornamented robe or gown] to one of the public balls of the citizens, given in our inn. It was held in a suite of several apartments; and a numerous band of music, composed of violins, wind instruments, and kettle-drums, had been provided. The master of the inn had also taken care to invite a company of gipsies, to entertain the company by their dancing. A single rouble was demanded as the price of admission. All fears of appearing like a foreigner vanished upon entering the principal ball-room; for I found an assembly as various in their appearance as characters in a masquerade. On the benches were squatted Turks, with their usual gravity and indifference, looking on with a solemn vacant stare, unmoved by shouts of joy or tumultuous songs, by the noise of the dancing, or the thundering of a pair of kettle-drums close to their ears. In another part were a party of Bucharians, with flat noses, high cheek-bones, and little eyes—their heads shaved, and a small conical embroidered cap on the crown of their skulls—in red morocco boots, long trousers of blue cloth, with a girdle and a poignard. Besides these were Chinese merchants, Cossacks, and even Calmucks, all of whom appeared as spectators. In the middle of the room, the Russian boors and tradesmen were dancing with prostitutes, while their own wives and daughters were walking about. A party of gipsies were performing the national dance, called *Barina*. It resembled our English hornpipe; but never was displayed more ferocious licentiousness by voice and gesture. The male dancer expressed his savage joy in squeaks, contortions, and sudden convulsive spasms, that seemed to agitate his whole frame—standing sometimes still—then howling, whining tenderly, or trembling in all his limbs to the music, which was very animating. This dance, though exceedingly common in Russia, they confess to have derived from the gipsies; and it may therefore seem probable that our hornpipe was introduced by the same people. Other gipsies were telling fortunes, according to their universal practice, or begging for presents of oranges and ice. This extraordinary people, found in all parts of Europe, were originally one of the *castes* of India, driven out of their own territory, and distinguished among Indian tribes by a name which signifies Thieves. They have a similar appellation among the Fins, and with the same signification. They preserve every where the same features, manners, and customs, and, what is more remarkable, almost always the same mode of dress. The extraordinary resemblance of female gipsies to the women of India was remarked by our officers and men in Egypt, when General Baird arrived with his army to join Lord Hutchinson. The sepoys had many of their women with them, who were exactly like our gipsies. In their dress, they lavish all their finery upon their head. Their costume in Russia is very different from that of the natives: they wear enormous caps, covered with ribbons, and decorated in front with a prodigious quantity of silver coins, which form a matted mail-work over their foreheads. They also wear such coins as necklaces, and have the smallest to be met with in the empire for pendants to their ears. The Russians hold them in great contempt, never speaking of them without abuse; and feel themselves contaminated by their touch, unless it be to have their fortune told. They believe gipsies not only have the wish, but the power, to cheat every one they see, and therefore generally avoid them. Formerly they were more scattered over Russia, and paid no tribute; but now they are collected, and all belong to one nobleman, to whom they pay a certain tribute, and rank among the number of his slaves. They accompany their dances by singing, and loud clapping of the hands; breaking forth, at intervals, with shrieks and short expressive cries, adapted to the sudden movements, gestures, and turns of the dance. The male dancers hold in one hand a handkerchief, which they wave about, and manage with grace as well as art. The dance, full of the grossest libidinous expression, and most indecent posture, is in other respects graceful. Nothing can be more so than the manner in which they sometimes wave and extend their arms; it resembles the attitudes of Bacchanalians represented on Greek vases. But the women do not often exhibit those attitudes. They generally maintain a stiff upright position, keeping their feet close, and beating a tattoo with their high heels.

When the Russians dance the Barina, it is accompanied with the balalaika. Formerly they were great admirers of that simple and pleasing instrument, but now, imitating the manners of France and England, it has been laid aside. Many of them are still able to play it; but as they deem such an accomplishment a sort of degradation in the eyes of foreigners, they are seldom prevailed upon to use it: like the ladies of Wales, who, scarce able to speak English, affect ignorance of their native tongue.

Collected in other parts of rooms opened for this assembly, were vocal performers, in parties of ten or twelve each, singing voluntaries. They preserved the most perfect harmony, each taking a separate part, though without any seeming consciousness of the skill thus exerted. The female dancers and assistants in this ball were many of them prostitutes; but the wives and daughters of the peasants and lower tradesmen mingled with them, dressed in their full national costume, and apparently not displeased with such society.

The ball of the nobles admits a very different description. It took place every Tuesday, and it may be truly said, Europe has not beheld its equal. I never was more struck by the appearance of an assembly convened for the purpose of dancing. The laws of the society exclude every person who is by birth a plebeian, and this exclusion has been extended to foreigners; therefore we felt grateful in being allowed admission. Prince Viazemskoi, who married an English lady, kindly procured tickets for us, although it was considered dangerous at that time to have the character of hospitality towards Englishmen.

The *coup d'œil* upon entering the grand saloon is inconceivable. During ten years that I have been accustomed to spectacles of a similar nature in different parts of the continent, I have never seen any thing with which it might compare. The company consisted of nearly two thousand persons, nobles only being admitted. The dresses were the most sumptuous that can be imagined; and, what is more remarkable, they were conceived in the purest taste, and were in a high degree becoming. The favourite ornaments of the ladies were cameos, which they wore upon their arms, in girdles round their waists, or upon their bosoms—a mode of adorning the fair which has since found its way to our own country, and which was originally derived from Paris; but the women of France and England may go to Moscow, in order to see their own fashions set off to advantage. Their drapery was disposed chiefly after the Grecian costume, and they wore their hair bound up round the head. The modes of dress in London and Paris are generally blended together by the ladies of Moscow, who select from either what may become them best; and in justice to their charms, it must be confessed, no country in the world can boast superior beauty. When, in addition to their personal attractions, it is considered, that the most excessive extravagance is used to procure whatever may contribute to their adornment;* that a whole fortune is sometimes lavished on a single dress; that they are assembled in one of the finest rooms in the world, lighted and decorated with matchless elegance and splendour—it may be supposed the effect has never been surpassed.

In such an assembly, we had every reason to suppose a couple of English travellers might pass without notice. We had, moreover, a particular reason for hoping this would be the case; as, in obedience to a decree of the Emperor Paul, we had collected our short hair into a queue, which appeared most ridiculously curtailed, sticking out, like any thing but that which it was intended to represent, and most remarkably contrasted with the long tails of the Russians. Unfortunately the case was otherwise; and a curiosity to see the two Englishmen becoming general, to our great dismay we found ourselves surrounded by a crowd of persons, some of whom thought proper to ask, "who cut our hair?" Such questions, it may be conceived, did not add to the evening's amusement; but our astonishment was completed the next day, in receiving the thanks and blessings of a poor ragged barber, who had powdered us at the inn, and whose fortune he assured us we had made, all the young nobles having sent for him to cut and dress their hair in the same ridiculous manner.

I should not have mentioned such a trifling incident, if it had not ultimately taken a very serious turn; for the police-officers interfering, the young men who had thus docked themselves were apprehended in the public walks, severely reprimanded, and compelled to wear false hair; and we were obliged to use the utmost circumspection, lest we should also be apprehended, and perhaps treated with more rigour.

The dances were called quadrilles, Polonese, and English. The waltz, once their favourite, had been prohibited. But whatever name they gave them, they were all dull, consisting merely in a sort of promenade. Neither the men nor the women evinced the slightest degree of animation while dancing, but seemed to consider it an apology for not sitting still. Every person wore full dress—the men appearing either in uniform, or coats of very rich embroidery.

CHAPTER V.

MOSCOW.

In whatever country we seek original genius, we must go to Russia for a talent of imitation. It is the acme of Russian intellect—the principle of all their operations. They have nothing of their own; but it is not their fault if they have not every thing which others invent. Their surprising powers of imitation exceed all that has been hitherto known. The meanest Russian slave has been found adequate to the accomplishment of the most intricate and most delicate works of mechanism; to copy, with his single hand, what has demanded the joint labours of the best workmen in France or England. Though untutored, they are the best actors in the world. A Russian gentleman, who had never seen a theatre, assisted during the representation of a play, in one of the remote eastern provinces; and was accidentally seen by persons capable of estimating the merit of his performance, which they pronounced superior to that of any of our European actors. I am disposed to credit this account, because, in examples of their imitative genius, I have witnessed something similar. If they were instructed in the art of painting, they would become the finest portrait painters in the world. In proof of this I saw one example; it was a miniature portrait of the emperor, executed by a poor slave, who had only once seen him, during the visit he made to Moscow. In all that concerned resemblance and minuteness of representation, it was the most astonishing work which perhaps ever appeared. The effect produced was like that of beholding the original through a diminishing lens. The Birmingham trinket manufacture, in which imitations of jewellery and precious metals are wrought with so much cheapness, is surpassed in Moscow: because the workmanship is equally good, and the things themselves are cheaper. But the great source of wonder is in the manner of their execution. At Birmingham they are the workmanship of many persons—in Moscow, of one only; yet the difference between divided and undivided labour in this branch of trade occasions none in the price of the articles. I saw in Moscow imitations of the Maltese and Venetian gold chains, which would deceive any person, unless he were himself a goldsmith. This is not the case with their cutlery, in which a multiplication of labour is so requisite. They fail therefore in hard-ware, not because they are incapable of imitating the works they import, but because they cannot afford to sell them for the same price. Where a patent, as in the instance of Bramah's locks, has kept up the price of an article in England beyond the level it would otherwise find, the Russians have imitated such works with the greatest perfection, and sold the copy at a lower rate than the original, though equally valuable. This extraordinary talent for imitation has been shown also in the fine arts. A picture by Dietrici, in the style of Polemberg, was borrowed by one of the Russian nobility from his friend. The nobleman who owned the picture had impressed his seal upon the back of it, and had inscribed verses and mottoes of his own composition. With so many marks, he thought his picture safe any where. But a copy so perfect was finished, both as to the painting and all the circumstances of colour in the canvass, the seal, and the inscriptions, that when put into the frame of the original, and returned to its owner, the fraud was not discovered. This circumstance was afterwards made known by the confession of the artist employed; and there are now residing in Petersburg and Moscow foreign artists of the highest respectability and talents who attest its truth. One of them, Signor Camporesi, assured me, that walking in the suburbs of Moscow, he entered a miserable hut belonging to a cobbler; where, at the farther end, in a place contrived to hold pans and kettles, and to dress victuals, he observed a ragged peasant at work. It was a painter in enamel, copying very beautiful pictures which were placed before him. The same person, he added, might have been found the next day drunk in a cellar, or howling beneath the cudgel of his task-master. Under the present form of government in Russia, it is not very probable the fine arts will ever flourish. A Russian is either a slave, or has received his freedom. In the former instance, he works only when instigated by the rod of his master, and is cudgelled as often as his

* It is related very generally, in the higher circles of the city, that a princess of Moscow, who had purchased a wig to imitate the colour of her own hair, confined her hairdresser in a closet, fed him always herself, and allowed him only to come out during her toilet, in order that her false tresses might not be detected.

owner thinks proper. While employed in works of sculpture or painting, he is frequently called off to mend a chair or a table, to drive nails into a wainscot, or daub the walls of the house. When evening comes, as certainly comes a cudgel across his shoulders; and this is not the way to make artists. In the latter instance, if he has received his freedom, the action of the cudgel having ceased, all stimulus to labour ends. He has then no other instigation to work, except the desire of being able to buy brandy, and to get drunk; which he does whenever he can procure the means, and there is soon a period put to any exertion of his talents. Neither is this a way to make artists.

The booksellers' shops in Moscow are better furnished than in Petersburg; but they are very rarely placed upon a ground floor. The convenience of walking into a shop from the street, without climbing a flight of stairs, is almost peculiar to England; though there are some exceptions, as in the Palais Royal at Paris, and in a few houses at Vienna.* A catalogue of Russian authors in some of the shops, fills an octavo volume of two hundred pages. French, Italian, German, and English books, would be as numerous here as in any other city, were it not for the ravages of the public censors, who prohibit the sale of books, from their own ignorant misconception of their contents. Sometimes a single volume, nay a single page, of an author is prohibited, and the rest of the work thus mangled permitted to be sold. There is hardly a single modern work which has not been subject to their correction. The number of prohibited books is such, that the trade is ruined. Contraband publications are often smuggled; but the danger is so great, that all the respectable booksellers leave the trade to persons either more daring, or who, from exercising other occupations, are less liable to suspicion.

Yet there are circumstances arising from the state of public affairs in the two cities, which gives a superiority to the booksellers of Moscow. In and near the city reside a vast number of Russian nobility. A foreigner might live many years there, without even hearing the names of some of them, whereas at Petersburg a few only are found, who all belong to the court, and are therefore all known. Many of the nobles of Moscow have formerly figured in the presence of their sovereign, and have been ordered to reside in that city; or they have passed their youth in foreign travel, and have withdrawn to their seats in its environs. Many of these have magnificent libraries; and as the amusement of collecting, rather than the pleasure of reading books, has been the reason of their forming those sumptuous collections, the booksellers receive orders to a very large amount.† When a Russian nobleman reads, which is very rare, it is commonly a novel; either some licentious trash in French, or some English romance translated into that language. Of the latter, the Italian of Mrs Radcliffe has been better done than any other; because, representing customs which are not absolutely local, it admits of easier transition into any other European tongue. But when they attempt to translate Tom Jones, The Vicar of Wakefield, or any of those inimitable original pictures of English manners, the effect is ridiculous beyond description. Squire Western becomes a French Philosopher, and Goldsmith's Primrose a *Fleur de Lis.*

Books of real literary reputation are not to be obtained either in Petersburg or Moscow. Productions of other days, which from their importance in science have become rare, are never to be found. Costly and frivolous volumes, sumptuously bound, and most gorgeously decorated, constitute the precious part of a library, in Russian estimation. Gaudy French editions of Fontenelle, of Marmontel, of Italian sonneteers, with English folios of butterflies, shells, and flowers; editions by Baskerville, Bensley, and Bulmer, with hot-pressed and wire-wove paper—in short, the toys rather than the instruments of science, attract the notice of all the Russian amateurs. A magnificent library in Russia, on which immense sums have been expended, will be found to contain very little of useful literature. In vain, among their stately collections, smelling like a tannery of the leather which bears their name, may we seek for classic authors, historians, lawgivers, and poets. A copy of the Encyclopædia, placed more for ostentation than for use, may perhaps, in a solitary instance or two, greet the eye, as the only estimable work throughout their gilded shelves.

After London and Constantinople, Moscow is doubtless the most remarkable city in Europe. A stranger, passing rapidly through, might pronounce it the dullest, dirtiest, and most uninteresting city in the world; while another, having resided there, would affirm that it had rather the character of a great commercial and wealthy metropolis of a vast and powerful empire. If the grandeur and riches of the inhabitants are to be estimated by the number of equipages, and the number of horses attached to each, Moscow would excel in splendour all the cities of the globe. There is hardly an individual, above the rank of plebeian, who would be seen without four horses to his carriage, and the generality have six. But the manner in which this pomp is displayed, is a perfect burlesque upon stateliness. A couple of ragged boys are placed as postilions, before a coachman, in such sheeps' hides as are worn by the peasants in the woods; and behind the carriage are stationed a couple of lackies, more tawdry, but not less ludicrous, than their drivers. To give all this greater effect, the traces of the harness are so long, that it requires considerable management to preserve the horses from being entangled, whenever they turn the corner of a street, or make a halt. Notwithstanding this, no stranger, however he may deride its absurdity, will venture to visit the nobles, if he wishes for their notice, without four horses to his chariot, a ragged coachman and postilion, and a parade of equipage that must excite his laughter in proportion as it ensures their countenance and approbation.

The wives of the tradesmen, during the season of their festivals, are seen driving about in droskies, with riches upon their persons sufficient to purchase a peerage. Caps made of matted work of pearls, with Turkish and Persian shawls, and diamond ear-rings; preserving, at the same time, always the national costume, however costly their apparel. This costume is remarkably graceful when the shawl is worn, and as much otherwise when it is not. The shawl covers the head, and falls in thin folds over the shoulders, reaching almost to the feet. The celebrated Pallas presented me with a drawing representing the wife of a Russian tradesman, with the old duenna, or nurse, which is found in almost every family. It was executed by his artist Geisler. With that good humour which always characterises him, finding the women unwilling to have their figures delineated, he caused Mrs Pallas to assume the dress of the young wife, and put on his own person the habit of a duenna; thus affording a scenic representation, in which the persons of the drama, though strongly caricatured, are, the professor and his wife.

The amusements of the people are those of children—that is to say, of English children—for in Paris and Naples I have witnessed similar amusements, in which grave senators and statesmen mounted wooden horses, *round-abouts*, and *ups-and-downs*, with the inhabitants of those cities. It will be said, the English are a grave people. Be it so; but I believe I could assign a better reason for the want of such infantine sports at their wakes and fairs. Certainly there is no part of our island in which men of forty and fifty years of age would be seen riding on a wooden horse, or swinging about in a vaulting chair. Three Russians at a time will squeeze themselves into one, and, as they are whirled round, scream for joy, like infants tossed in the nurse's arms. I remember seeing the King of the Two Sicilies, joining, with his principal courtiers, in a similar amusement.

Entering by the Gate of the Resurrection, which forms

* [Dr Clarke is here in error. The shops in all parts of Paris, and in every other town in France that we have visited, are level with the street, the same as in London.]

† These orders are sometimes given in the style related of one of the late Empress's favourites, who sent for a bookseller, and said, "*Fit me up a handsome library: little books above, and great ones below.*"

the eastern extremity of the Tverschia, one of the principal streets in Moscow, there is a small chapel, or chamber, open to the street; before which, at all hours of the day, a mob is seen assembled, crossing and prostrating themselves. I had the curiosity to penetrate this host of devotees, and to enter the sanctuary. There I found an old man with a long beard busy in selling candles to the numerous visitants, who, immediately after buying them, placed them before a picture of the Virgin. The little chapel was filled with a variety of pictures of saints and martyrs: but there were two of the Virgin with the infant, larger than the rest, and placed facing the street; one of which is said to have been brought hither by an angel, which causes the extraordinary devotion paid to that picture in particular; although there are many such pictures in other parts of Moscow, with the same reputation of a miraculous transportation. The particular picture to which reference is now made, was framed in silver, set round with gems, true or false, of various magnitudes. It has great celebrity, from the numberless miracles it has wrought, in healing the sick, restoring sight to the blind, and showering down favours of all kinds upon its worshippers. Now, supposing only four persons present themselves before this image, as it is called, in the compass of a single minute (and sometimes fifty in the same instant may be observed opposite the shrine), no less a number than 2880 persons will be found to visit it in the short space of twelve hours. It would be indeed a miracle, if out of this number one or two did not occasionally experience relief either from sickness of body, or sorrow, or some pleasing accidental change in circumstances: and whenever this happens, if only once in thirty days, which would be one out of 86,400 persons, not reckoning nightly visitants, the noise of it is circulated far and wide, the story itself exaggerated, and the throng of votaries increased. Upon such ground an idiot might be the occasion of as vast a superstructure of ignorance and credulity as any which even Russia has witnessed. The picture of a saint found accidentally in the street, human bones dug up in a forest, a dream, any casual and rude representation of a cross, in straws which have fallen together at the meeting of roads, or a *lusus naturæ*, the colours of a pied horse, veins in a piece of flint or marble—in short, whatever represents, or is supposed to represent, any object in their prodigious catalogue of superstition—might occasion a resort of devotees, give rise to a church, or a market-place for wax-chandlers, painters, and silversmiths, as famous as the shrine of Diana of Ephesus.

What is so probable, has frequently happened. A merchant of Moscow, more renowned for speculation than piety, some years ago caused a coffin to be dug up, with the supposed body of a saint, in the interior of the empire, eastward of the city. The throng to it from all parts became immense; the blind were healed, the lame left their crutches suspended as trophies of miraculous cures; and, in a short time, all the other churches were deserted, in consequence of the reputation of the newly discovered saint. It was moreover said that his saintship was very passionate; that he was angry at being disturbed; and insisted upon having a church built over him, to ensure his future repose. A church was therefore erected; when news of the whole affair reaching the ears of the late Empress Catherine, she ordered the building to be shut. The Emperor Paul, from a determination to undo every thing she did, and to do as much as possible what she would not have done, caused it to be again opened; although it was well known in Russia, that the merchant, after the church was shut by the empress's order, frequently avowed and laughed at the fraud he had committed. Much after the same manner, during the plague which raged in Moscow about thirty years ago, a picture was placed in one of the streets of the city, to which the people eagerly thronged upon the earliest intelligence of it. The archbishop Ambrose, finding that the danger of spreading the infection increased as the people crowded to this picture, ordered it to be removed, and shut up in a church, the doors of which were forced open by the populace; and the venerable prelate being dragged from the Convent of Donskoi, was inhumanly put to death. The late empress, in her correspondence with Voltaire, gave an account of this event; recommending it as a supplement to the article *Fanaticism*, in the French Encyclopædia.

All that has been said or written of Roman Catholic bigotry, affords but a feeble idea of the superstition of the Greek Church. It is certainly the greatest libel upon human reason, the severest scandal upon universal piety, that has yet disgraced the annals of mankind. The wild, untutored savage of South America, who prostrates himself before the sun, and pays his adoration to that which he believes to be the source of life and light, exercises more rational devotion than the Russian, who is all day crossing himself before his Bogh, and sticking farthing candles before a picture of St Alexander Nevski. But in the adoration paid by this people to their saints and virgins, we may discern strong traces of their national character. The homage they offer to a court parasite or to a picture, are both founded on the same principle; and in all their speculations, political or religious, they are prompted by the same motive. A deity, or a despot, by the nature of the one, and the policy of the other, is too far removed from their view to admit of any immediate application. All their petitions, instead of being addressed at once to a spiritual or a temporal throne, are directed to one or the other by channels which fall beneath the cognisance of sense. Thus we find *favouritism* the key-stone of Russian government, and adoration of saints the pillar of their faith. The sovereign is disregarded in the obeisance offered to his favourites; and the Creator forgotten in the worship of his creatures.

As we lived in some degree of intimacy with many of the Russian nobility, their manners and opinions could not escape our notice. Of all Europeans, they bear the greatest resemblance to the nobles of the Two Sicilies. The Neapolitans, and the grandees of Palermo, are exactly like those of Moscow, and even the peasants of the two countries have a certain degree of resemblance. This similitude may arise from a similarity of government—vicious and despotic, ignorant and superstitious. The same character prevails in their national dances, and in their mode of dress. The barina differs little from the tarantala; and the female peasants of the Campana Felice dress very much like the women near Moscow—with the same shoes, the same kind of head-dress, the same embroidered suits, the same load of finery. Cannot this be explained? The costume of Magna Græcia came from the Archipelago, and the art of dress was introduced into Russia from Constantinople. I have before mentioned, that in their sports the Russians and Neapolitans are the same. In the class of the nobles, the women are far superior to the men—they are mild, affectionate, often well informed, beautiful, and highly accomplished—while the men are destitute of every qualification which might render them, in the eyes of their female companions, objects of admiration. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at, that ladies of rank in Moscow have the character of not being strict in their fidelity to their husbands, especially when the profligate example so lately offered them in their Empress Catherine is taken into consideration. It is difficult to conceive how the wives of the generality of the nobles in Moscow can entertain any respect for their husbands. Married, without passion, by the policy and self-love of their parents, frequently to men they never saw until the time of wedlock—subjected to tyrants, who neither afford examples to their children, nor any source of social enjoyment to themselves—who are superannuated before the age of thirty, diseased, dirty, and overwhelmed by debt—the women of Moscow regard the matrimonial life as superior, indeed, to that of imprisonment in a convent, but as a state of slavery, from which they look to a joyful deliverance in the death of their husbands. Every one acquainted with the real history of the Empress Catherine, and the manner in which she burst the connubial bonds, will find in it a model of the state of female so-

ciety throughout the empire. The wives of the nobles, it is true, do not assassinate their husbands, but the ties of wedlock are altogether disregarded. In giving this representation, I would be understood with reference to the general state of the community. I shall not offend my reader, nor wound the feelings of individuals, by retailing private anecdotes for public purposes; neither is it necessary to relate the few exceptions of which the statement may admit. Whatever credit may be given to it in this country, I am very sure it will not be contradicted in Russia.*

A Russian nobleman will sell any thing he possesses, from his wife to his lap-dog; from the decorations of his palace to the ornaments of his person; any thing to obtain money; any thing to squander it away. Visiting a trading mineralogist, I was surprised to see glass cases filled with court dresses, and still more in being told they were dresses of the nobility, sent to be exposed for sale as often as they wanted money. Their plan is, to order whatever they can procure credit for, to pay for nothing, and to sell what they have ordered as soon as they receive it. We should call such conduct in England *swindling*. In Moscow it bears another name—it is called *Russian magnificence*.

The children of those who murdered Peter III. [at the instigation of Catherine] resided in Moscow when we were there; one of them married the daughter of the governor. The Princess Menzikof, grand-daughter of the favourite of Peter the Great, was also there; we were often in her company, and too much amused by her cheerful disposition to report the style of conversation she indulges every where. However, that which is a proverb in Russia may bear an allusion in England. When the late empress died, Paul, her son and successor, caused the body of his father to be taken up, and laid in state by the coffin of his mother in the palace at Petersburg. It is said there was only one person, an archbishop, who knew where they had laid him, as he was interred, without monument or inscription, in the church of the monastery of St Alexander Nevski. Orlof, his murderer, was then at Moscow. An order from the emperor brought him to Petersburg; and when the bodies were removed to the church of St Peter and St Paul in the citadel,† he was compelled to walk in the processiou from the palace to the citadel, following the body of the person he had murdered so long before. It was then the people of Petersburg beheld an interesting spectacle of retribution. One of them, an eye-witness of the whole scene, related it to me. The bodies were drawn upon low chariots by horses. Immediately after the coffin of Peter III., and close to it, walked, with slow and faltering steps, his assassin Orlof, having his eyes fixed on the ground, his hands folded, and his face pale as death. Next to Orlof walked the emperor, certainly manifesting, by this sublime though mysterious sacrifice to the manes of his father, an action worthy of a greater character. The ceremony ended, Orlof was ordered to quit the empire, and lately was travelling in Germany, and in the south of Europe.*

* [There is no subject connected with Russia on which more discordant opinions have been delivered than regarding the beauty of her women. All the early travellers agree in opinion with Fletcher, who gives a very excellent account of them in 1591. "These two extremities, especially in the winter, of heat within their houses, and of extreme colde without, together with their diet, maketh them of a darke and sallow complexion, their skinnes being tanned and parched both with colde and with heate; especially the women, that for the greater part are of *furre worse complexions* than the men." And "The women, to mende the bad hue of their skinnes, use to paint their faces with white and redde colours, so visibly that every man may perceive it. Which is made no matter, because it is common, and liked well by their husbandes; who make their wives and daughters an ordinarie allowance to buy the colours to paint their faces withall, and delight themselves much to see them of fowle women to become such fair images." Collins, in 1671, is even more severe. "A lean woman," says he, "they account unwholesome; therefore they who are inclined to leanness give themselves over to all manner of epicurism on purpose to fatten themselves, and lye abed all day long drinking Russian brandy (which will fatten extremely), then they sleep and afterwards drink again, like swine designed to make bacon." Dr Crull, Olearius, Le Brun, and other old authors, give similar accounts.

The first modern, except Dr Clarke, who has spoken in glowing terms of the charms of the Russian women, is Sir R. K. Porter, who, having fallen in love with a lady at Moscow, appears to have seen things through a very flattering medium afterwards. He is indeed not only enraptured with their beauty, but also avouches their modesty and chastity. Mr James is the only respectable authority who supports him in his latter opinion, whilst a crowd of superior testimony is arrayed on the other side. Tooke, Storch, Lyall, all so eminently qualified to judge from long residence in Russia, agree as to the ungainly figures of the women, and as to their lamentable lack of personal charms. It is to be regretted that their opinion as to moral character is not different from that of Dr Clarke.]

† The place where state prisoners are kept.

* [The Orlof here referred to was Count Alexei Orlof, surnamed by Catherine II. Tchesmenskii, on account of his victory over the Turkish fleet at Tchesmé. After the death of Paul, he was taken into favour by Alexander, and died immensely rich at Moscow, where he had a magnificent palace, and where he usually resided. He left an only daughter, the present Countess Orlof-Tchesmenska, one of the wealthiest and most distinguished of the Russian nobility, who remains unmarried. Dr Lyall resided in her house at Moscow for four years.]

† [A perfect acquiescence in the statement of the text may lead to very serious misapprehensions. It is not to be doubted that banishment to Siberia is looked upon by all classes in Russia as a most severe punishment, especially as it is generally accompanied by loss of rank and fortune, and a sentence to personal labour in the mines. The exile, indeed, generally loses even his name, being known only amongst his guards by a simple numeral. It can scarcely be expected that such degradation can be pleasing to the nobles, or to any other class of people.

It is quite true that Tobolskoi is a lively gay town, but it is not the exiles that render it so, since few of them are allowed to reside there, except after a probationary term in the mines or the deserts, when, should their spirits survive, the funds are wanting to carry on the animated life described by Dr Clarke. But Tobolskoi, as the seat of the military and civil governments of Siberia, is always well peopled, and, as nearly as circumstances will admit, a second Petersburg or Moscow.

Dr Clarke has also fallen into a strange mistake, when he charges the Russians with a want of that feeling which is well known to be inseparable from the human breast—a love of country. From the concurrent testimony of all authors, the very reverse is the fact, and the devotion of all classes of Russians, during the invasion of Napoleon, is a convincing illustration of the truth. But independently of that national burst of enthusiasm, several travellers complain of the *nationality* of the Russians, which leads them to express contempt for all other countries, and to consider their own as the veritable "great nation." Such prejudices are common to every people under the sun.]

CHAPTER VI.

MOSCOW.

In England, we hear of persons sent to Siberia as a very severe punishment, and entertain very erroneous notions concerning the state of exiles in that country. To a Russian nobleman the sentence of exile can hardly imply punishment. The consequence of their journey is very often an amelioration of their understanding and their hearts. They have no particular attachment to their country—none of that home sickness which afflicts the soul of an Englishman [or rather of a Swiss] in banishment. They are bound by no strong ties of affection to their families, neither have they any friendship worth preserving. Tobolski, from the number and rank of the exiled, is become a large and populous city, full of shops and society, with theatres, and elegant assemblies of amusement. Its inhabitants, above 2000 versts from Moscow, have booksellers, masquerades, French hotels, and French wines, with the porter and beer of England. Those who have resided there, either as officers on duty, as travellers, or as exiles, give the highest accounts of its gaiety and population. An officer of considerable rank in the Russian service told me, he would rather have the half of his pay and live at Tobolski, than the whole of it in residence at Petersburg. Many who have been ordered home have wished and sought to return thither.† This is no subject of wonder.

Tobolski is admirably adapted to the Russian taste. According to Gmelin, it is a very temple of Bacchus and indolence. Provisions were so cheap when he was there, in the middle of the last century, that a person might maintain himself for ten roubles a-year—not two pounds of our money. His account of the carnival and Easter festival proves there was not much difference between the state of society in Tobolski and in Moscow at that time, and there is much less at present.

A circumstance occurred during my abode in Moscow, attended by a trait of so much generosity in a Russian, that I conceive it deserves to be related. On Wednesday, the 7th of May, the sub-governor received an order for his exile to Siberia. No reason whatever was assigned for the displeasure of the emperor—no offence was alleged. The whole city flocked to take leave of him, for he was much beloved; and dangerous as such a testimony of their affection might prove, yet they crowded to his house, and considered him as a man sacrificed to the caprice of a tyrant. Among others, came a humble citizen, and demanded admission. It was granted. "You are going to leave us," said he, "and may not have time to settle your affairs. Do you not want money? I come as your banker." "I have need of some," said the governor, "but it is much more than you can furnish." "How much?" "Twenty-five thousand roubles!" The honest fellow withdrew, and speedily returning with notes to the amount of the sum specified, placed them on the table, carefully counting them over, then made his bow, and retired.

Acquaintance with Camporesi the architect procured me admission at the house of Prince Trubetzkoi, a dealer in minerals, pictures, hosiery, hats, cutlery, antiquities; in short, all the furniture of shops and museums. Having squandered away his fortune, he picked up a livelihood by selling, for himself and others, whatever came in his way. His house, like a pawnbroker's shop, exhibited one general magazine, occupying several rooms. A prince presiding over it, and practising all the artifices of the meanest tradesman, was a spectacle perfectly novel. Any thing might be bought of his highness, from a pair of bellows to a picture by Claude Lorraine. In the same room might be seen handkerchiefs, stockings, artificial flowers, fans, cologne water, soap, pomatum, prints, books, guns, pistols, minerals, jewellery, harness, saddles, bridles, pipes, second-hand clothes, swords, stuffed birds, bronzes, buckles, buttons, snuff-boxes, wigs, watches, boots, and shoes. "My house," said he, as we entered, "and all it contains, is at your service, or any one's else who will buy it! I will sell you the house for a single rouble, provided you will pay me also a rouble for each article of its furniture." While we bargained with his highness, Prince L. sent a note, which he read aloud. It was to borrow money. "Here's a man," said Prince Trubetzkoi, "with a million of roubles in his drawing-room, sends to me for forty-five, to pay his expenses into the country. You see how we go on in Russia!"

The number of pictures in Moscow is really astonishing. There are four or five eminent dealers, who have large collections. The palaces of the nobles are many of them filled, and there is not one of their owners unwilling to sell any picture they possess. It seems as if all Europe had been ransacked to supply such collections. At first view, a room adorned by them has an imposing and very brilliant appearance; but, upon a nearer approach, the charm vanishes: they are almost all of them copies, and the major part of them brought from Vienna. But the Russians themselves are, as I have said before, so ingenious in the art of imitation, that a nobleman of skill and judgment in painting has been known to purchase of a dealer copies made a few days before by one of his own slaves, who went from his easel to his more usual and daily occupation of blacking shoes, and afterwards got drunk with the wages of his ingenuity. As the nobles have rarely any money at command, their traffic in the fine arts, as in other things, is carried on by exchange. This sort of barter is of all things that in which they take the greatest delight. They purchase a picture for a carriage, or an embroidered suit of clothes, just as they pay their physician with a snuff-box. In every thing the same infantine disposition is displayed, and, like children, they are tired of their toys almost in the moment they have acquired them. In their choice of pictures, they are pleased only with gay and splendid colouring, highly finished, in gaudy frames—"*quelque chose d'éclatant!*" to use an expression constantly in their mouths. The works of Van der Werf, Watteau, Jordaens, Berchem, and Gerhard Douw, bear the highest prices; but if productions by any of the Bolognese masters are shown to them, they are rejected. Nothing of the *sombre* cast, however sublime, has any value in their estimation. The works of the Caracci, Zampieri, or even Michael Angelo, would not meet admirers. A beautiful head by Corregio, not many years ago possessed by an artist in London, in the course of those adventures to which fine pictures are liable, fell into the hands of a Russian priest. He kept it during a short time, because he had been told it was a celebrated work. At last he exchanged it for some wretched copies, with an Italian miniature painter. "It had too much shade," he said, "and the lights were too pale; it had the air altogether of a head from the guillotine." The method of paying their physicians by trinkets, which I before mentioned, might seem an inconvenience to the faculty; but it is not so. Dr Rogerson at Petersburg, as I am informed, regularly received his snuff-box, and as regularly carried it to a jeweller for sale. The jeweller sold it again to the first nobleman who wanted a fee for his physician, so that the doctor obtained his box again; and at last the matter became so well understood between the jeweller and the physician, that it was considered by both parties as a sort of bank-note, and no words were necessary in transacting the sale of it.

Having mentioned the name of this respectable physician, it may be well to say something of the state of medicine in the country. The business of an *accoucheur* is, I believe, always practised by women. The emperor ordered all the midwives to undergo examination before a board of physicians, a few days before we left Petersburg. In the regulation concerning apothecaries, however well intended, the same wisdom was not shown. It is a reproach to the country. If a stranger arrives, and is in immediate want of an emetic,* or any trifling drug, he cannot obtain it without the written order of some physician. If this takes place in the night, he might die before morning; for the physician, though sent for, certainly would not attend. In Petersburg, the fee of an eminent physician is twenty-five roubles; in Moscow, only one or two. Persons calling themselves English physicians are found in almost every town upon the continent. Sometimes they have worked in apothecaries' shops in London or Edinburgh; but generally they are Scotch apothecaries, who are men of professional skill, and of acknowledged superiority. In some places abroad, the practitioners are really natives of England: but whenever this is the case, the traveller is cautioned to shun them, however celebrated they may be, as he values his existence.† Without exception, I

* A remedy almost infalliblo against those dangerous fevers which are the consequence of passing over unwholesome marshes in hot countries, if taken within twenty-four hours.

* [The sweeping censure here conveyed upon British medical men abroad, is decidedly unjust. Beyond all question, Russia has benefited very extensively from the efforts of British physicians. All the three departments into which the medical profession is divided, the civil, military, and naval, were, until within a few years, under the presidency of a British subject. Sir Alexander Crichton had the civil, Dr Leighton the naval, and Sir James Wylie the military division. The last named gentleman has had the good fortune to enjoy the sunshine of imperial favour during three successive reigns. Dr Leighton's practice as an accoucheur is stated to be very considerablo, for Dr Clarke is in error in his belief that that branch of the profession was practised only by women. In addition to the gentlemen named, who all held high official situations, very many of the principal Russian nobility maintain English physicians in their families—men certainly far removed from the opprobrious description of Dr Clarke.]

never met a single instance of a man of talent among expatriated English physicians; neither would such men leave their country, to settle among foreigners, unless compelled by circumstances of misconduct at home. Those Englishmen upon the continent who go by the name of physicians, will generally be found, upon inquiry, to have exercised no such profession in their own country, but to have lived as servants in the shops of apothecaries, chemists, and druggists, or to have practised as veterinary surgeons, farriers, or itinerant quacks.

The Russian nobility are passionately fond of travelling; and under the circumstances of the Emperor Paul's administration, this passion increased with the difficulty of its gratification. They entertain extravagant notions of the wealth and happiness of Englishmen; and they have good reason to do so; since whatever they possess useful or estimable comes to them from England. Books, maps, prints, furniture, clothing, hard-ware of all kinds, horses, carriages, hats, leather, medicines, almost every article of convenience, comfort, or luxury, must be derived from England, or it is of no estimation. Some of the nobles are much richer than the richest of our English peers; and a vast number, as may be supposed, are very poor. To this poverty, and to these riches, are equally joined the most abject meanness, and the most detestable profligacy. In sensuality, they are without limits of law, conscience, or honour. In their amusement, always children; in their resentment, women. The toys of infants, the baubles of French fops, constitute the highest object of their wishes. Novelty delights the human race; but no part of it seek for novelty so eagerly as the Russian nobles. Novelty in their debaucheries; novelty in gluttony; novelty in cruelty; novelty in whatever they pursue. This is not the case with the lower class, who preserve their habits unaltered from one generation to another. But there are characteristics in which the Russian prince and the Russian peasant are the same; they are all equally barbarous. Visit a Russian, of whatever rank, at his country seat, and you will find him lounging about, uncombed, unwashed, unshaven, half-naked, eating raw turnips, and drinking quass. The raw turnip is handed about in slices in the first houses, upon a silver salver, with brandy, as a whet before dinner. Their hair is universally in a state not to be described; and their bodies are only divested of vermin when they frequent the bath. Upon those occasions, their shirts and pelisses are held over a hot stove, and the heat occasions the vermin to fall off. It is a fact too notorious to admit dispute, that from the emperor to the meanest slave, throughout the vast empire of all the Russias, including all its princes, nobles, priests, and peasants, there exists not a single individual in a thousand whose body is destitute of vermin. An English gentleman of Moscow, residing as a banker in the city, assured me, that, passing on horseback through the streets, he has often seen women of the highest quality, sitting in the windows of their palaces, divesting each other of vermin—another trait, in addition to what I have said before, of their resemblance to the Neapolitans.

The true manners of the people are not seen in Petersburg, nor even in Moscow, by entering the houses of nobility only. Some of them, and generally those to whom letters of recommendation are obtained, have travelled, and introduce refinements, which their friends and companions readily imitate. The real Russian rises at an early hour, and breakfasts on a dram with black bread. His dinner at noon consists of the coarsest and most greasy viands, the scorbutic effects of which are counteracted by salted cucumbers, sour cabbage, the juice of his *vaccinium*, and his nectar quass. Sleep, which renders him unmindful of his abject servitude and barbarous life, he particularly indulges—sleeping always after eating, and going early to his bed. The principal articles of diet are the same every where; grease and brandy. A stranger, dining with their most refined and most accomplished princes, may in vain expect to see his knife and fork changed. If he sends them away, they are returned without even being wiped. If he looks behind him, he will see a servant spit in the plate he is to receive, and wipe it with a dirty napkin, to remove the dust. If he ventures (which he should avoid, if he is hungry) to inspect the soup in his plate with too inquisitive an eye, he will doubtless discover living victims in distress, which a Russian, if he saw, would swallow with indifference. Is it not known to all, that Potemkin used to take vermin from his head, and kill them on the bottom of his plate at table?—and beautcous princesses of Moscow do not scruple to follow his example. But vermin unknown to an Englishman, and which it is not permitted even to name, attack the stranger who incautiously approaches too near the persons of their nobility, and visit him from their sofas and chairs. If at table he regards his neighbour, he sees him picking his teeth with his fork, and then plunging it into a plate of meat which is brought round to all. The horrors of a Russian kitchen are inconceivable; and there is not a bed in the whole empire, which an English traveller, aware of its condition, would venture to approach.

In the house of young Count Orlof alone, are no less than five hundred servants; many of them sumptuously clothed, and many others in rags. It is no unusual sight to see behind a chair a sort of *gala* footman, like a Neapolitan *volante*, in gold and plumes, and another behind him looking like a beggar. The generation has not yet passed away, which, at the pleasure of the tsar, were sent to be whipped as dogs. The short liberty they enjoyed in the reign of Catherine did not suffice to elevate their minds from the depravity always incident to a state of slavery. Under Paul, the period came again in which they suffered the indignities offered to their forefathers. Potemkin, one of the meanest and most profligate of men, frequently taught them to remember what they had before been, by chastising with his own hand a prince or a nobleman with whom he chanced to be offended; and the Emperor Paul exercised his cane upon the nobles who were his officers. Under such government, if we find them servile, oppressive, cowardly, and tyrannical, it is no more than may be expected, from their mode of education, and the discipline they undergo. They will naturally crouch with their heads in the dust before an emperor or his favourite, and trample their inferiors beneath their feet.

They consider the English as a mercenary nation, and generally hate them because they fear them, or court them if they want their support. One of their princes thought proper to declare in public, at his own table, where we had been invited to dine, and were of course under protection enjoined by the laws of hospitality, that in England there is not an individual, patriot or placeman, who is not saleable to the highest bidder. He instanced Wilkes, Gibbon, and Burke, with many others; adding, "English slavery is less justifiable than Russian. One is selfishness; the other, submission to the laws."

It is very true, that the system of slavery in Russia, like many other evils, may sometimes be productive of good. If the nobleman is benevolent, his slaves are happy; for they are fed, clothed, and lodged. In sickness they are attended, and in old age they find an asylum. In case of accidents from fire, if a whole village is burned, the nobleman must find wood to rebuild it. But when, as generally happens, the proprietor is a man without feeling or principle, their situation is indeed wretched. In such instances, the peasants often take the law into their own hands and assassinate their lords. To prevent this, the latter live in cities, remote from their own people, and altogether unmindful of all that concerns them, except the hard tribute they are to receive. Many of the Russian nobles dare not venture near their own villages, for fear of the vengeance they have merited by their crimes. In this sad survey, it is soothing to point out any worthy object, on which the attention, wearied by depravity, may for a few short moments repose. Some noble traits have presented themselves among the slaves.

When the father of Count Golovkin was reduced to

the necessity of selling a portion of his peasants, in consequence of debts contracted in the service of the crown, deputies from the number of his slaves came to Moscow, beseeching an audience of their lord. One venerable man, the oldest of the number advertised for sale, begged to know why they were to be so dismissed. "Because," said the Count, "I am in want of money, and must absolutely pay the debts I have contracted." "How much?" exclaimed at once all the deputies. "About thirty thousand roubles," rejoined the Count. "God help us! Do not sell us; we will bring the money!"

Peter III. was a greater friend to tho Russian nobility, during three months, than all the sovereigns of Russia put together, and in their gratitude they murdered him. While under the oppressive and degrading discipline of Paul, they kneeled, and kissed the rod. Peter liberated them from slavery and from corporal punishment. He permitted them to sell their effects, and settle in other countries; to serve, if they pleased, under other sovereigns. In short, he gave them all they most desired, and they assassinated their benefactor.

I have already mentioned the swarm of servants in their palaces. A foreigner wonders how they are supported. The fact is, if a nobleman has fifty or five hundred, they do not cost him a shilling. Their clothes, food, every article of their subsistence, are derived from the poor oppressed peasants. Their wages, if wages they can be called, scarce exceed an English halfpenny a-day. In the whole year, the total of daily pittance equals about five roubles forty-seven copeeks and a half, which, according to the state of exchange at the time we were there, may be estimated at twelve shillings and ninepence. Small as this sum is, it might have been omitted, for it is never paid. There are few of the nobles who think it any disgrace to owe their servants so trivial a debt. There is, in fact, no degree of meanness to which a Russian nobleman will not condescend. To enumerate the things of which we were eye-witnesses, would only weary and disgust the reader.* I will end with one.

A hat had been stolen from our apartments. The servants positively asserted that some young noblemen, who had been more lavish of their friendship and company than we desired, had gained access to the chambers in our absence, and had carried off the hat, with some other moveables, even of less value. The fact was inconceivable, and we gave no credit to it. A few days after, being upon an excursion to the Convent of the New Jerusalem, forty-five versts north of Moscow, a party of the nobles, to whom our intention was made known the preceding evening at the *Club de Noblesse*, overtook us on horseback. One of them, mounted on an English racer, and habited like a Newmarket jockey, rode up to the side of the carriage; but his horse being somewhat unruly, he lost his seat, and a gust of wind carried off his cap. My companion immediately descended, and ran to recover it for its owner; but what was his astonishment to perceive his own name, and the name of his hatter, on the lining! It was no other than the identical hat, which one of the party had stolen from our lodgings, now become a cap, and which, under its altered shape, might not have been recognised, but for the accident here mentioned.

The love of mimicry, already mentioned as characteristic of the nation, has been carried to a great excess in the Convent of the New Jerusalem, which is not only an imitation of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem, but, as I mentioned in the beginning of the work, contains representations of all the relics consecrated in that edifice. It has been built exactly after the same model, and within it are exhibited the tomb of Christ, the stone which was rolled from the sepulchre, the holes in which stood the crosses of our Saviour and the two thieves crucified with him, the prison in which they relate he was confined, together with all the other absurdities fabricated by the Empress Helena and her ignorant priests at Jerusalem. Finding, however, some difference between the representation made of the original building in the Holy Land, and its model here, I asked the monks the reason of the alteration. They replied, "Our building is executed with more taste, because it is more ornamental, and there are many good judges who prefer ours to the original"—thus most ignorantly implying, that the Church at Jerusalem, so long an object of adoration, had been so, rather on account of its beauty, than any thing contained in it. But nothing can prove with more effect to what an abject state of mental darkness the human mind may fall, than that the trumpery here, not having even the empty title to reverence which relics may claim, but confessedly imitations, should receive the veneration and the worship paid to their originals. A fat and filthy priest, pointing to a hole in the midst of Russia, exclaims, "Here stood the holy cross!"—while boorish devotees shed over it tears of piety, as genuine as those which fall from the eyes of pilgrims in the tabernacles at Jerusalem. Within a cell, to which they have given the name of the prison of Jesus Christ, sits a wooden figure, so ridiculously dressed, that it is impossible to view it without laughter. It is as large as life, and intended to represent the Messiah in his confinement, with a veil of black crape cast about the head, face, and shoulders.

The Virgin with Three Hands also makes her appearance here; and an ancient picture is exhibited, which they say came from Jerusalem. It is exactly like those modern paintings now manufactured in Russia for the churches and household gods, and was probably one of the original models of the art.

The dome of the building may be esteemed among the finest works of architecture in the country. It is lighted in a very pleasing manner. The expense of its completion has been stated at 38,000 roubles, or I should have suspected it to have been much more. In the library of the convent there is nothing remarkable, except thirty pieces of lead, shown as the money paid to Judas Iscariot for betraying Christ, and, of course, copies of a similar pretended relic at Jerusalem. The dresses of the priests are also exhibited, covered with jewels. One mitre alone, or cap, is valued at 24,000 roubles. Some modern manuscript Bibles, in the Russian language, presented by the late empress, are seen, most sumptuously bound in covers of gold, and studded with enamelled paintings, which are set round with brilliants of the finest Siberian emeralds, and other precious stones.

The approach to this convent is by a gentle ascent, on a fine verdant plain. It is situated in a pleasing country; and the excursion to it conducts a stranger through the most agreeable of the environs of Moscow. It was once fortified; and a few pieces of old neglected artillery lie near the gate, beneath some trees.

* [Although it is unjust to generalise from a few particular facts—and indeed nothing would be more improper than to assert that the whole Russian nobility are addicted to theft—yet certainly there are examples of meanness and dishonesty exhibited by persons of rank and fortune in Russia, which are unknown in other countries. Even Dr Lyall, who takes great pains to vindicate the general character of the country, details the two following singular anecdotes:—

A nobleman of the highest rank, now in his grave, invited his friends to a splendid entertainment in his gardens on the Moskva. The most distinguished personages of the metropolis were present. With surprise, one of the guests was remarked, as he most dexterously conveyed a silver spoon which he had been using into his pocket. Immediately after dinner this *noble* left the party, and, attended by livery servants, got into his carriage and drove home.

A prince of Russia having entered one of the magazines at Moscow, wandered up and down, passed a number of articles in review, and demanded their prices. While the proprietor and his assistants were busily occupied in showing a variety of wares to numerous purchasers, the said nobleman clandestinely, and, as he thought, without being seen, seized a gilded cup and saucer, conveyed them under his cloak, commenced a general conversation, pretended to have forgotten something, ran off with his booty, deposited it in his carriage, departed, and followed by a couple of servants in gorgeous apparel, seated himself in his vehicle, and, no doubt, dwelt with complacency on his triumph, as he was hurled along the street to his splendid palace.]

We were presented to the superior, the most greasy monk, without exception, I ever beheld. He spoke to us in Latin, and gave us the history of their great patriarch Nicon, whose portrait we had seen in the church, and who rose from the lowest station to the high office he held. After his marriage, a separation took place, by the mutual consent of husband and wife—one becoming prior of a monastery, and the other prioress of a convent.

When we returned to Moscow, we found the inhabitants murmuring in consequence of new prohibitions. A ukase had appeared, which forbade the importation of any kind of foreign literature; and under this head were included maps, music, and whatever might be construed a medium of science. It will require another generation to recover the check which rising genius then sustained. Some notion may be formed of the administration of the public censors, by a domiciliary visit the booksellers received during our residence in Moscow. The shops were to undergo examination for prints or plans of Riga. Every article of their property was of course overhauled. Wherever any thing appeared bearing the remotest reference to Riga, for whatever purpose calculated, it was instantly condemned. If the word *Riga* chanced to make its appearance in any book, however valuable, though but on a single page, the leaf was torn out. In this manner they destroyed, in one day, works of geography, history, the arts, atlasses, dictionaries, voyages; ravaging, tearing, and blemishing, wherever they came.

That the Russians have talents no one will deny, but they dare not show them. Since the death of Catherine, it has seemed the wretched policy of their government to throw every obstacle in the way of intellectual improvement. Genius became a curse to its possessor—wit, a passport to Siberia. Apathy, stupidity, and ignorance, were blessings—truth and science, qualifications for the *knout*. The author of *Mon Voyage à Moscou* atoned for the brilliancy of his understanding in the wildernesses of Tobolski. A *bon mot*, an epigram, the sparks and ebullitious of inventive genius, like sudden flashes of lightning in the darkness of a nocturnal tempest, rendered, as they vanished, more sensible impressions of surrounding horror. The splendour of the long day which enlightened the reign of Catherine, contrasted with the gloomy period of Paul's administration, may be justly compared with the moral and natural phenomena of the empire—now brightened by a continual sun, and now darkened by uninterrupted night. The number of prohibitions became so numerous, and many of them were so trivial, that it was necessary to carry about manuals of obedience, and assist the memory by pocket catalogues of forbidden things. Some of these prohibitions excited more laughter than fear. Pug dogs, from the emperor's resemblance to them, were prohibited any other name than *mops*. Ivory-headed canes were on no account to be permitted, being reserved solely for the use of the military. These, and many other absurd regulations, exposed foreigners daily to the insolence of the police. My companion was actually arrested for not wearing flaps to his waistcoat, and I narrowly escaped punishment for having strings in my shoes.

The Convent of the Trinity, distant forty miles from Moscow, is deemed particularly worth seeing, on account of its immense riches. Rather more than two miles farther is another convent, less known, but more remarkable: it contains within its walls a Gothic church, erected over a mount, supposed to typify the mountain of the Ascension of Jesus Christ. At the foot of the mount, and within it, is a small chapel, containing figures executed in wax, to represent the resurrection of Lazarus. This extraordinary work has been planned by Plato, archbishop of Moscow, who resides there, and under whose inspection the whole was executed. The place is called Vifanij.

But the most remarkable edifice, as it affords a striking monument of national manners, is the Church of St Basil, near the Kremlin. It is a complete specimen of the Tartar taste in building, and was erected by Ivan Basilovich II. in 1538. To add to the singularity of its history, it was the workmanship of Italian architects.* Its numerous and heavy cupolas, surmounted by gilded crucifixes, exhibit a striking contrast of colour and ornament. Pious individuals bequeath legacies towards the perpetual gilding or painting of this or that dome, according to their various fancies, so that it is likely to remain a splendid piece of patchwork for many generations. In order to account for the origin of this building, and the oriental style exhibited in its formation, we must look back to the period of the Russian history in which it was constructed. The stories we have hitherto received of the monarch, in whose piety or ostentation it is said to have originated, are so contradictory, that the subject itself merits a little investigation. The more we inquire into the real history of Russia, and of Russian sovereigns, the more we shall have reason to believe, that the country, and its people, have undergone little variation since the foundation of the empire. Peter the Great might cut off the beards of the nobles, and substitute European habits for Asiatic robes, but the inward man is still the same. A Russian of the nineteenth century possesses all the servile propensities, the barbarity of manners, the cruelty, hypocrisy, and profligacy, which characterised his ancestors in the ninth.

John Basilovich I. has been considered as one of the founders of the Russian empire; but his accession did not take place till the middle of the fifteenth century. He arose, like Bonaparte, in a period of national dismay, confusion, and calamity; and though described as a man of impetuous vices and violent passions, intrepid, artful, treacherous, and having all the ferocity of a savage, has been hailed as the deliverer of his country, and dignified by the appellation of *the Great*. It is a title which an oppressed intimidated people have frequently bestowed upon tyrants. Until his time, however, Tartars were lords of Moscow—the tsars themselves being obliged to stand in the presence of their ambassadors, while the latter sat at meat, and to endure the most humiliating ceremonies. Basilovich shook off the Tartar yoke; but it was a long time before the Russians, always children of imitation, ceased to mimic a people by whom they had been conquered. They had neither arts nor opinions of their own: every thing in Moscow was Tartarian—dress, manners, buildings, equipages—in short, all except religion and language, Basilovich, at the conquest of Casan, was solemnly crowned with the diadem of that kingdom, which is said to be the same now used for the coronation of the Russian sovereigns. In the reign of his successor, Moscow was again taken by that people, and its tsar subjected to an ignominious tribute. Twelve years afterwards, the eldest son of that successor, John Basilovich II.,

* [The proper name of this church is the Pokrovskoi cathedral, though it passes under different names even amongst the Russians, because it contains twenty different churches dedicated to various holy events and persons. The church dedicated to Vasilii (called by Clarke St Basil) is on the ground floor of the cathedral, together with eleven others, and there are nine churches on the floor above. This is the case in all the large ecclesiastical buildings in Russia, each containing several distinct churches or chapels. The cathedral in question is situated in the Kitai-Gorod, or second quarter of Moscow, on one of the sides of the "Beautiful Place," one of the most magnificent squares in the city. Karamzin, the Russian historian, denies that the Tartar manners or architecture ever prevailed in Russia, but derives both from the Slavonians and Greeks. But amongst whatever people the architectural taste first arose, it possesses extraordinary features. An able critic in the Quarterly Review has remarked upon this cathedral: "No description can give an adequate idea of this strange and fantastic building, in the design and execution of which, the peculiarities of Russian architecture seem to have reached their utmost limit of extravagance. It has a striking originality of character, which, though wild and barbarous, can never be contemplated without feelings of interest and admiration." It was a good deal injured during the invasion of the French in 1812, but it has been since completely repaired externally and repainted, and the balls and crosses of the towers regilt. It has been also partially surrounded by a wall and iron balustrade, instead of the paltry shops and stalls which formerly encumbered it.]

then an infant, but afterwards a ferocious and implacable tyrant, came to the throne.

It is a curious fact, that, in the very opening of his reign, we read of the arrest of no less than 300 artists, intended for Russia, in the town of Lubeck. What the great work then carrying on in Moscow was, is now uncertain; but it evidently proves a disposition, on the part of the sovereign, to superinduce the arts of western nations over the long-established oriental customs of his people. In this reign was built the church to which I have alluded. The artists arrested in Lubeck were Germans. The architects employed for the Church of St Basil were Italians; probably obtained by the connection which subsisted between the tsars of Muscovy and the emperors of Constantinople.* From whatever country they came, the taste displayed in the edifice is evidently Tartarian. How much the manners of the people were so at this period, may be shown by reference to the curious and interesting documents preserved in Hakluyt's Collection of Voyages. It was during the bloody administration of the tyrant who then ruled in Russia, that the first ambassadors went from England to that country. By the accounts they sent home, it appears that the situation of Englishmen in Russia was precisely what we experienced 230 years afterwards, under the tyranny of the Emperor Paul: the same disgusting race around them; the same dread of being communicative in their letters; the same desire to quit a scene of barbarity and profligacy. The secretary to Randolph, who went as ambassador from Queen Elizabeth, was a person of the name of George Tubervile, and wrote "Certaine Letters in Verse," to Dancie, Spencer, and Parker, "describing the manners of the countrey and people." He appears to have been a young man of fashion at that time. I have selected some of the most striking passages in these letters for a note.† They are very little known, and worth the reader's attention; not merely because they prove that Russia now is precisely what it was when they were written, but as curious examples of early English poetry. The work in which they are contained is extremely rare, and bears an enormous price.

* Some years afterwards, A. D. 1557, the tsar again made an unsuccessful application to the court of Vienna for artists; stating, that "he could easily procure them from France and Italy, but that he gave the preference to Germans, knowing them to be an upright, virtuous, and honest people."

† "I left my native soile, full liko a retchlesse man;
And unacquainted of the coast, among the Russes ran;
A people passing rude, to vices vile inclinde,
Folke fit to be of *Bacchus* train, so quaffing is their kinde.
* * * *
"Such licour as they have, and as the countrey gives,
But chiefly two, one called *Kuas*, whereby the *Mousike* lives,
Small ware and waterlike, but somewhat tart in taste,
The rest is *Mead* of honie made, wherewith their lips they baste.
* * * *
"Their Idoles have their hearts, on God they never call,
Unlesse it be (*Nichola Bough*) that hangs against the wall.
The house that hath no god, or painted saint within,
Is not to be resorted to, that roofe is full of sinne."—
HAKLUYT'S *Voyages*, pp. 384-5.

He then proceeds to mention the dissolute lives of the women, and their manner of painting their cheeks: and, at the close of his letter to Spencer, says—

——————"The people beastly bee.
I write not all I know, I touch but here and there,
For if I should, my penne would pinch, and eke offend I feare.
* * * *
"They say the lion's paw gives judgment of the beast:
And so you may deeme of the great, by reading of the least."
Ibid. p. 387.

In his letter to Parker, the Tartar dress and manner are thus strikingly introduced:

"Their garments be not gay, nor handsome to the eye;
A cap aloft their heads they have, that standeth very hie,
Which *Colpack* they do terme. They weare no ruffes at all:
The best have collars set with pearle, which they *Rubasca* call.
Their shirts in Russie long, they worke them downe before,
And on the sleeves with coloured silks, two inches good and more.
* * * *
"These are the *Russies* robes. The richest use to ride
From place to place, his servant runnes, and followes by his side.
The Cassacke beares his felt, to force away the raine:
Their bridles are not very brave, their saddles are but plaine.
* * * *
"For when the *Russie* is pursued by cruel foe,
He rides away, and suddenly betakes him to his boe,
And bends me but about in saddle as he sits,
And therewithall amids his race his following foe he hits.
Their bowes are very short, like *Turkie* bowes outright,
Of sinowes made with birchen barke, in cunning maner dight.
* * * *
"The maners are so *Turkie* like, the men so full of guile,
The women wanton, temples stuft with idols that defile
The seats that sacred ought to be, the customes are so quaint,
As if I would describe the whole, I feare my pen would faint.
In summe, I say, I never saw a prince that so did raigne,
Nor people so beset with saints, yet all but vile and vaine,
Wild *Irish* are as civill as the *Russies* in their kinde,
Hard choice which is the best of both, ech bloody, rude, and blinde."
Ibid. pp. 387-389.

CHAPTER VII.

MOSCOW.

THE market on a Sunday in Moscow is a novel and interesting spectacle. From five in the morning till eight, the *Place de Gallitzin*, a spacious area near the Kremlin, is filled by a concourse of peasants, and people of every description, coming to buy or sell white peacocks, fan-tailed, and other curious pigeons, dogs of all sorts, for the sofa or the chase, singing-birds, poultry, guns, pistols—in short, whatever chance or custom may have rendered saleable. The sellers, excepting in the market of singing-birds, which is permanent and very large, have no shops, but remain with their wares either exposed upon stalls, or hawking them about in their hands. Dogs and birds constitute the principal articles for sale. The pigeon-feeders are distinguished in the midst of the mob by long white wands, which they carry to direct the pigeons in their flight. The nobles of Moscow take great delight in these birds, and a favourite pair will sell from five to ten roubles in the market. I was astonished to see the feeders, by way of exhibiting their birds, let them fly, and recover them again at pleasure. The principal recommendation of the pigeons consists in their rising to a great height by a spiral curve, all flying one way, and following each other. When a bird is launched, if it does not preserve the line of curvature which the others take, the feeder whistles, waving his wand, and its course is immediately changed. During such exhibitions, the nobles stake their money in wagers, betting upon the height to which a pigeon will ascend, and the number of curves it will make in so doing. Among dogs for the chase, we observed a noble breed, common in Russia, with long fine hair like those of Newfoundland, but of amazing size and height, which are used in Russia to hunt wolves. German pug-dogs, so dear in London, here bear a low price. I was offered a very fine one for a sum equivalent to a shilling English. We observed also English harriers and foxhounds; but the favourite kind of dog in Moscow is the English terrier, which is very rare in Russia, and sells for eighteen roubles, or more, according to the caprice of the buyer and seller. Persian cats were also offered for sale, of a bluish-grey or slate colour, and much admired. Seeing several stalls apparently covered with wheat, I approached to examine its quality, but was surprised to find that what had the appearance of wheat consisted of large ants' eggs, heaped for sale. Near the same stalls were tubs full of pismires, crawling among the eggs, and over the persons of those who sold them. Both the eggs and the ants are brought to Moscow as food for nightingales, which are favourite though com-

mon birds in Russian houses. They sing in every respect as beautifully in cages as in their native woods. We often heard them in the bird-shops, warbling with all the fulness and variety of tone which characterises the nightingale in its natural state. The price of one of them, in full song, is about fifteen roubles. The Russians, by rattling beads on their tables of tangible arithmetic, can make the birds sing at pleasure during the day; but nightingales are heard throughout the night, making the streets of the city resound the melodies of the forest.

The promenades at this season of the year are among the many sights in Moscow interesting to a stranger. The principal is on the 1st of May, Russian style, in a forest near the city. It affords a very interesting spectacle to strangers, because it is frequented by the *bourgeoisie* as well as by the nobles, and the national costume may then be observed in its greatest splendour. The procession of carriages and persons on horseback is immense. Beneath the trees, and upon the green sward, Russian peasants are seen seated in their gayest dresses, expressing their joy by shouting and tumultuous songs. The music of the balalaika, the shrill notes of rustic pipes, clapping of hands, and the wild dances of the gipsies, all mingle in one revelry. The wives of merchants, in droskies and on foot, display head-dresses of matted pearls, and their most expensive attire. In costliness of apparel, there is no difference between a Moscow princess and the wife of a Moscow shopkeeper; except that one copies the fashions of London and Paris, while the other preserves the habit of her ancestors. During Easter, promenades take place every evening, varying occasionally the site of cavalcade. They are made in carriages and on horseback; the number of the former being greater than any occasion assembles in other cities of Europe. The intention of such meetings is the same every where; to see and to be seen. Equipages continue to pass in the same constant order, forming two lines, which move parallel to each other. The spectacle sometimes beggars all description. Beautiful women, attired in costly and becoming dresses, fill the balconies and windows of houses between which the cavalcade proceeds to its destination. Hussars and police-officers are stationed in different parts, to preserve order. When arrived at the place particularly set apart for the display of the procession, the stranger with amazement beholds objects which can only be matched in the most wretched purlieus of St Giles's; miserable hovels, and wooden huts, hardly discernible amidst clouds of dust. On Friday in Easter-week, the place of promenade is better selected: it is then on a plain called La Vallée, and the sight is the most surprising that can be conceived. Long before reaching this plain, the throng of carriages is so great that they can scarcely move. At last the great scene opens, and the view which breaks all at once upon the spectator is indeed striking. A procession, far as the eye can reach, is seen passing and repassing a spacious and beautiful lawn, the farther extremity of which appears terminated by a convent. No less than 2000 carriages, generally with six horses to each, but never less than four, are present upon this occasion. So much for the general effect. The appearance in detail, of the equipages, lackeys, and drivers, is an excellent burlesque upon grandeur. The postilions are generally old men of a wretched aspect, dressed in liveries of worsted lace and cocked hats, who hold their whip and reins as if they were never before mounted. The harness consists of ropes and cords, frequently ragged and dirty; very unlike the white traces used in Poland, which have a pleasing if not magnificent appearance. The carriages themselves, if not altogether as wretched as the night coaches of London, are ill built, old fashioned, heavy, and ugly. It is only the amazing number of equipages that affords ideas of wealth or greatness. Examined separately, every thing is little and mean. The procession is seen on the plain as far as the convent before mentioned, and returning back in the order it advanced. In the line between the carriages, a space is reserved for the cavaliers, who make their appearance on the most beautiful English and Turkish horses, riding, as they all maintain, *à l'Anglois*, but without the smallest resemblance to the manner of Englishmen. Their horses are taught the *manège*, and continue to pace and champ the bit, without advancing a step; occasionally plunging like those exhibited in amphitheatres, while their riders, in laced coats and ruffles, with cocked hats, and saddles sumptuously embroidered, imagine they display surprising feats of horsemanship. Several families preserve the old Russian costume in their servants' habits; others clothe their attendants like running footmen in Italy; so that the variety formed by the motley appearance is very amusing.

The numberless bells of Moscow continue to ring during the whole of Easter week, tinkling and tolling, without any kind of harmony or order. The large bell near the cathedral is only used on important occasions, and yields the finest and most solemn tone I ever heard. When it sounds, a deep and hollow murmur vibrates all over Moscow, like the fullest and lowest tones of a vast organ, or the rolling of distant thunder. This bell is suspended in a tower called the Belfry of St. Ivan,* beneath others, which, though of less size, are enormous. It is forty feet nine inches in circumference; sixteen inches and a half thick; and it weighs more than fifty-seven tons.

The Kremlin is, above all other places, most worthy a traveller's notice. It was our evening walk, whenever we could escape the engagements of society. The view it affords of the city surpasses every other, both in singularity and splendour, especially from St Ivan's tower. This fortress is surrounded on all sides by walls, towers, and a rampart, and stuffed full of domes and steeples. The appearance differs in every point of view, on account of the strange irregularity in the edifices it contains. Entering it by the arched portal, painted red, called the Holy Gate, persons of every description are compelled to walk bareheaded nearly a hundred paces. This gate is on the south side, facing the quarter of the shops. The approach to it is by a bridge across the fosse which surrounds the walls. It is a vaulted portal, and over the entrance is a picture, with a lamp continually burning. Sentinels are here placed, as at all the entrances to the Kremlin. No one ventures to pass this gate without taking off his hat. I wished to see if the rule was rigorously enforced, and, feigning ignorance, entered beneath the arch with my hat on. A sentinel challenged me; but, without taking notice of him, I walked forward. Next, a bareheaded peasant met me, and, seeing my head covered, summoned the sentinels and people with very loud expressions of anger, who, seizing me by the arms, very soon taught me in what manner to pass the Holy Gate for the future.†

* [This belfry, generally known under the name of Ivan Velikii, is in its highest tower 269 feet 6 inches in height, and is one of the most prominent objects in Moscow. The number of bells in the whole building amounts to 33, many of which are furnished with inscriptions, and have peculiar names. The largest of them was called the *bolshoi*, and weighed 124,289 English pounds, about the weight mentioned in the text. The others ranged from 70,000 downwards. This enormous tower was much injured by the French, who used it during their occupation of Moscow as an observatory, and attempted to blow it up upon their departure. In this they were unsuccessful, and it is now in as complete a state as before. The bell, *bolshoi*, was much injured, and was in consequence broken to pieces and recast. In the year 1819, the new bell was, amidst a vast concourse of people, and with most imposing ceremony, suspended, and, according to the inscription upon it, its weight is 4000 Russian pouds, or 144,000 English pounds, equal to 64½ tons.]

† [The correct name of this entrance to the Kremlin or Kremle is "the Gates of our Saviour," the picture of the Messiah, *not made with hands*, being hung up within them. An image of the Virgin Mary, with the infant Jesus in her arms, is also suspended. Wherever these holy figures are represented, the Russians are accustomed to exhibit signs of extreme reverence; and as the Kremle was formerly looked upon as in some degree consecrated, not only from the churches within it, but on account of its containing the residence of the Tzars, the mark of respect mentioned by Dr Clarke is strictly enforced. A great number of fables have been related touching the miracles effected by this image of our Saviour.]

The Great Bell of Moscow, known to be the largest ever founded, is in a deep pit in the midst of the Kremlin. The history of its fall is a fable; and as writers are accustomed to copy each other, the story continues to be propagated. The fact is, the bell remains in the place where it was originally cast. It never was suspended; the Russians might as well attempt to suspend a first-rate line of battle ship, with all its guns and stores. A fire took place in the Kremlin, the flames of which caught the building erected over the pit in which the bell yet remained, in consequence of which the metal became hot, and water thrown to extinguish the fire fell upon the bell, causing the fracture which has taken place. It reaches from the bottom of the cave to the roof. The entrance is by a trap-door, placed even with the surface of the earth. We found the steps very dangerous; some of them were wanting, and others broken, which occasioned me a severe fall down the whole extent of the first flight, and a narrow escape for my life, in not being dashed upon the bell. In consequence of this accident, a sentinel was stationed afterwards at the trap-door, to prevent people becoming victims to their curiosity. He might have been as well employed in mending the steps, as in waiting all day to say they were broken. The bell is truly a mountain of metal. They relate, that it contains a very large proportion of gold and silver, for that, while it was in fusion, the nobles and the people cast in, as votive offerings, their plate and money. It is permitted to doubt the truth of traditionary tales, particularly in Russia, where people are much disposed to relate what they have heard, without once reflecting on its probability. I endeavoured, in vain, to assay a small part. The natives regard it with superstitious veneration, and they would not allow even a grain to be filed off. At the same time it may be said, the compound has a white shining appearance, unlike bell-metal in general, and perhaps its silvery aspect has strengthened, if not given rise to, a conjecture respecting the richness of its materials.

On festival days, the peasants visit the bell as they would a church, considering it an act of devotion, and they cross themselves as they descend and ascend the steps. The bottom of the pit is covered by water, mud, and large pieces of timber, which, added to the darkness, render it always an unpleasant and unwholesome place, in addition to the danger arising from the steps which lead to the bottom. I went frequently there, in order to ascertain the dimensions of the bell with exactness. To my great surprise, during one of those visits, half a dozen Russian officers, whom I found in the pit, agreed to assist me in the admeasurement. It so nearly agreed with the account published by Jonas Hanway, that the difference is not worth notice. This is somewhat remarkable, considering the difficulty of exactly measuring what is partly buried in the earth, and the circumference of which is not entire. No one, I believe, has yet ascertained the size of the lower rim of the bell, which would afford still greater dimensions than those we obtained, but it is entirely buried in the earth. About ten persons were present when I measured the part which remains exposed to observation. We applied a strong cord close to the metal in all parts of its periphery, and round the lower part where it touched the ground, taking care at the same time not to stretch the cord. From the piece of the bell broken off, it was ascertained that we had thus measured within two feet of its lower extremity. The circumference obtained was sixty-seven feet and four inches, which allows a diameter of twenty-two feet, five inches, and one-third of an inch. We then took the perpendicular height from the top of the bell, and found it correspond exactly with the statement made by Hanway, namely, twenty-one feet, four inches and a half. In the stoutest part, that in which it should have received the blow of the hammer, its thickness equalled twenty-three inches. We were able to ascertain this, by placing our hands under water where the fracture had taken place, which is above seven feet high from the lip of the bell. The weight of this enormous mass of metal has been computed to be 443,772 pounds, which, if valued at three shillings a pound, amounts to £66,565, 16s. lying unemployed, and of no use to any one. [This wonderful bell still remains in the same situation.]

The Great Gun, which is also among the wonders of the Kremlin, I measured with less facility, being always interrupted by the sentinels, one of whom pointed his bayonet at me, and threatened to stab me if I persisted in my intention: yet, by walking its length, I found it equal to eighteen feet and a half; and its diameter may be guessed, when it is known that it will admit a man sitting upright within its calibre. It is, moreover, ten inches thick. This gun is kept merely for ostentation, and never used. Notwithstanding the neglect it has experienced, it remains in good order, without injury. It was cast in 1694. Near it are placed some artillery of less calibre, but of very extraordinary length.

There was nothing prohibited under more severe penalty than making any drawing or sketch within this fortress; on which account I am prevented giving the superb view it affords of Moscow. But as the objects within its walls are always interesting to strangers, artists of merit were not wanting for their representation. It was however with the greatest difficulty I succeeded in obtaining a view of the interior of the Kremlin, containing the ancient Palace of the Tsars. A window appears in the front of this building (which is an irregular Gothic edifice) distinguished by two Gothic pillars. It is the same, they relate, from which Demetrius, in his attempt to escape, during the conspiracy of Zuski, fell and broke his thigh, previous to his massacre. He lowered himself to a considerable distance by a rope; but the height was still too great for any hope of safety. Despair must have been great indeed, when it induced any one to make the attempt. That window was also the place where the sovereigns of Russia used to sit, and receive petitions from their subjects. The petition was placed upon a stone in the court below; and if the tsar thought proper, he sent for it. The imperial treasure is now in cases round the walls of the upper apartments of the palace; the approach to which is by a stone staircase, memorable for massacres committed there by the Strelitzes, during the mutiny excited by the sister of Peter the Great. A scene more striking, as a subject for historical painting, can hardly be conceived, than that which took place upon this staircase, when the venerable patriarch, bearing in one hand an image of the Virgin Mary, which was supposed to work miracles, and with the other leading young John Narishkin, followed by his weeping sister and the princesses, descended, calling on the infuriate mob to spare his life. They had been two days seeking him, and had threatened to set the palace on fire, if he was not delivered to be put to death. No sooner had they seized their victim, than, cutting his body in pieces, they fixed his head, feet, and hands on the iron spikes of the balustrade.

We ascended by this memorable staircase to the Imperial Treasury.* It contains very little worth notice. The old general who has the care of it is obliged to attend in person, when permission for seeing it has been obtained. He was very ill during our visit, and, being placed in an arm-chair in one of the rooms, sat grumbling the whole time with pain and impatience. The various articles have been enumerated in the anonymous travels of two Frenchmen, who complain of being hurried, as we were. Habits of ceremony worn by the sovereigns of Russia at their coronation, and other costly embroidered robes, thickly studded with gems and pearls, occupied the principal cabinets, and appeared to constitute the chief ornaments of the Treasury. Among a number of such dresses was a vest, twelve yards in length, worn by Catherine II. It was supported by twelve chamberlains at her coronation. The custom of amassing and exhibiting splendid attire characterised

* [The collection of curiosities here described as being in the old Palace of the Tzars, has been removed to the Imperial Museum erected by Alexander, in another part of the Kremle. It was in this extraordinary old palace that Peter the Great was born, and that Napoleon resided during his stay in Moscow. It is often called the Palace of the Belvédere by travellers.]

the Russians in times of their earliest potentates. In the accounts which ambassadors from our own country afforded, so long ago as the reign of Philip and Mary, we find it was the custom at Moscow to clothe tradesmen, and other inhabitants, elders of the city, in rich garments, and to place them in the antechamber of the sovereign on days of audience; but when the ceremony ended, these costly vestments were again replaced in the Treasury.

The crowns of conquered kingdoms are exhibited in the Treasury. We saw those of Casan, of Siberia, of Astracan, and of the Crimea. The last, from its simplicity, and the circumstances connected with its history, excited the most interest. It was totally destitute of ornament, affording a remarkable contrast to the lavish store of riches seen on all the objects around it, and emblematical of the simplicity and virtue of the people from whom it had been plundered. Its form was very ancient, and resembled that usually given by painters to our English Alfred. The part of the Treasury containing the most valuable objects is that in which the crowns of the Russian sovereigns are deposited. It is said that the rubies which adorned those of the Empress Anne, and of Peter II., have been changed, and stones of less value substituted in their place. Some things were shown to us, which were once considered of great value, but are now curious only from their antiquity; such, for instance, as a long ivory comb, with which the tsars combed their flowing beards. Cupboards, below the glass cases which cover the walls, were filled with a profusion of goblets, vases, plates, cups of all sorts, basins, gold and silver candlesticks, and other articles of value, the gift of foreign princes and tributary states. A round box of gilded silver contains, upon a scroll, the code of laws of the several provinces of the empire, collected by Alexis, father of Peter the Great, one of the best and wisest princes that ever sat upon the Russian throne. There are also some pieces of mechanism that would now be little esteemed any where; a toilette, the furniture of which is entirely of amber; serpentine vessels, which are supposed to possess the property of disarming poison of its baneful effects; masquerade dresses worn by their sovereigns; a few natural curiosities; and among these, the horn of a kind of whale called *narvhal*, above eight feet in length. This whale is found near the mouths of the rivers which fall into the Icy Sea, or on the shores of lakes in the same latitude. The horns and tusks of animals, in a fossil state, form a considerable article of the interior commerce of Russia. Perhaps the ivory manufactured at Archangel may have been dug up in the north of Russia. Professor Pallas informed me, such prodigious quantities of elephants' teeth were discovered on an island which lies to the north of the Samoiede Land, that caravans come actually laden with them to Petersburg. The most remarkable circumstance is, that instead of being mineralised, like elephants' tusks found in the south of Europe, they may be wrought with all the facility of the most perfect ivory; but this only happens when they are found in a latitude where the soil is perpetually frozen; they have then been preserved, like the fishes and other articles of food brought annually to the winter markets of Petersburg. Those dug in the southern parts of Siberia are found either soft and decayed, or mineralised by silicious infiltrations, and metalline compounds. What a source of wondrous reflection do these discoveries lay open! If frost alone has preserved them, they were frozen in the moment of their deposit; and thus it appears, that an animal peculiar to the warmest regions of the earth must, at some distant period, have been habituated to a temperature which it could not now endure for an instant.

In a very ancient part of the palace, formerly inhabited by the patriarchs, and adjoining to their chapel, are kept the dresses worn by them, which are also exhibited in glass cases. They requested us particularly to notice the habits of Nicon and St Nicholas; the tiaras sent to the patriarchs from the emperors of Constantinople; the crucifixes borne in their solemn processions; the patriarchal staves, and relics. Several of the last were inserted in cavities cut within a wooden crucifix. Among other things which added to its prodigious sanctity and miraculous powers, was pointed out to us a part of one of the bones of Mary Magdalene. The dresses were very ancient, but full as magnificent as those we had seen at the ceremony of the Resurrection, gold and silver being the meanest ornaments lavished upon them. Many were entirely covered with pearls, and otherwise adorned with emeralds, rubies, diamonds, sapphires, and precious gems of Siberia. In smaller cabinets we saw onyx-stones wrought in cameo-work, exhibiting images of Jesus and of the Virgin, which were not less than three inches and a half in length, and two in breadth. They showed us, moreover, vessels of massive silver, made to contain consecrated oil, which is sent all over Russia from Moscow, for the service of the Greek churches. Sixteen of these vessels, of very considerable magnitude, each capable of containing from three to four gallons, were presented by the Emperor Paul.

In the chapel adjoining the chambers in which these treasures are kept, is a collection of manuscripts in Greek and Sclavonic, and more of the bones of Mary Magdalene. By much the greater number of the manuscripts are in the Sclavonic language. The priest who had the care of them conversed with me in Latin, and affirmed, that, among the Sclavonic, or, as he termed them, the Ruthenic manuscripts, there was a copy of the works of Virgil, and one of Livy. He was not, however, able to find either of them, and I imputed the whole story to his ignorance and vanity. I afterwards conversed with Archbishop Plato upon the same subject, who assured me nothing of any importance existed among the manuscripts. The priest translated, or pretended to translate, some of their titles, from the Sclavonic language, into Latin. If the account he gave me can be relied on, the collection contains the travels of pilgrims to Jerusalem in very remote periods. In Russian characters, illuminated, on ancient vellum paper, is a copy of the Gospels in folio, most beautifully written by Anne, the daughter of Michael Feodorovich. We were also shown, as at Petersburg, some carving in wood by Peter the Great. It was a small box, and contained a letter, dated 1697, sent by him, from Sardam in Holland, to the patriarchs at Moscow. The priest permitted me to make a *fac-simile* of his hand-writing, for which purpose I copied with great care the signature to his letter. It was simply his Christian name—*Piter*.

Having obtained the keys from the secretary's office, we were admitted to see the famous Model of the Kremlin, according to the plan for its erection under the auspices of the late empress. It is one of the most curious things in Moscow. If the work had been completed, it would have been the wonder of the world. The architect who constructed the plan was a Russian, and had studied in Paris. The model cost 50,000 roubles. The expense necessary for the accomplishment of the undertaking, as the architect Camporesi, who made the estimate, assured me, would have been 50,000,000 of roubles. The calculation laid before the empress stated the amount only at 20,000,000. The work was begun; but, it is said, the falling in of a part of the foundation determined the empress against its prosecution.

The plan was, to unite the whole Kremlin, having a circumference of two miles, into one magnificent palace. Its triangular form, and the number of churches it contains, offered some difficulties, but the model was rendered complete. Its fronts are ornamented with ranges of beautiful pillars, according to different orders of architecture. Every part of it was finished in the most beautiful manner, even to the fresco painting on the ceilings of the rooms, and the colouring of the various marble columns intended to decorate the interior. It encloses a theatre, and magnificent apartments. Had the work been completed, no edifice could ever have been compared with it. It would have surpassed the Temple of Solomon, the Propylæum of Amasis, the Villa of Adrian, or the Forum of Trajan. Camporesi spoke of it in terms of equal praise; but at the same time he confessed to me, that Guarenghi, his countryman, at

Petersburg, an architect well known for his works in that city, entertained different sentiments. Guarenghi allowed it to be grand, as it must necessarily be from its stupendous nature, but thought it too much ornamented, and too heavy in many of its parts.

The architecture exhibited in different parts of the Kremlin, in its palaces and churches, is like nothing seen in Europe. It is difficult to say from what country it has been principally derived. The architects were generally Italians, but the style is Tartarian, Indian, Chinese, and Gothic—here a pagoda, there an arcade! In some parts richness, and even elegance; in others, barbarity and decay. Taken altogether, it is a jumble of magnificence and ruin—old buildings repaired, and modern structures not completed—half-open vaults, and mouldering walls, and empty caves, amidst white-washed brick buildings, and towers, and churches, with glittering, gilded, or painted domes. In the midst of it, some devotees are seen entering a little mean structure, more like a stable than a church. This, they tell you, is the first place of Christian worship erected in Moscow. It was originally constructed of the trunks of trees, felled upon the spot, at the foundation of the city; but now it is of brick, built in imitation of the original wooden church. Its claim to antiquity cannot be great, as, according to accounts published in our own country, the whole city of Moscow was burned by the Tartars of the Crimea, on the 24th of May 1571, at which time the old wooden church was probably destroyed. We entered during a service performed in this building; a priest, with true Stentorian lungs, was reading a selection from the Gospels to the people. There is nothing within the structure worth notice.*

The view of Moscow, from the terrace in the Kremlin, near the spot where the artillery is preserved, would afford a fine subject for a panorama. The number of magnificent buildings, the domes, the towers, and spires, which fill all the prospect, make it, perhaps, the most novel and interesting sight in Europe. All the wretched hovels, and miserable wooden buildings, which appear in passing through the streets, are lost in the vast assemblage of magnificent edifices; among which the Foundling Hospital is particularly conspicuous. Below the walls of the Kremlin, the Moskva, already become a river of importance, is seen flowing towards the Volga. The new promenade forming on its banks, immediately beneath the fortress, is a superb work, and promises to rival the famous quay at Petersburg. It is paved with large flags, and is continued from the Stone Bridge, to another, peculiarly called the Moskva Bridge, fenced with a light but strong iron palisade, and stone pillars, executed in very good taste. A flight of stairs leads from this walk to the river, where the ceremony of the benediction of the water takes place at an earlier season of the year. Another flight of wooden steps leads through the walls of the Kremlin to an area within the fortress.

One day, ascending by this staircase, we found all the churches in the Kremlin open, and a prodigious concourse of people assembled at the celebration of the great festival of the Ascension. It is difficult to describe the scenes then exhibited within these buildings. I was carried in by the crowd, which rushed forward like a torrent; and being lifted by it from the ground, beheld, as I entered, a throng of devotees, in which there was danger of being pressed to death; all of whom were in motion, crossing themselves, bowing their heads, and struggling who should first kiss the consecrated pictures. The bodies of their saints were exposed; and we were shown, by the attending priests, some of the wood of *the true cross*. Women, with tears streaming from their eyes, were seen lifting their infants, and teaching them to embrace the feet and hands of the images. Observing a crowd particularly eager to kiss the skull of an incorruptible saint, I asked a priest, in Latin, whose body the sepulchre contained. "Whence are you," said he, "that you know not the tomb of St Demetrius?"

* [This church or cathedral is dedicated to the Transfiguration of our Saviour, and is known by the name of *Spas na Boru*, that is, "our Saviour's church amidst pines and birch;" because, at the period of its construction, it was surrounded by such a forest. It is rather a drawback to the general beauty of the Kremlin, both its architecture and situation being extremely inappropriate, but its removal could not with safety be attempted, as it is regarded with such superstitious reverence by the Russians that such a project would be esteemed the direst sacrilege, and probably excite a revolt. Its title to be the oldest Christian church in Moscow is successfully disputed by the *Uspenskoi Sobore*, or Cathedral of the Assumption of the Virgin Mary, though both of them have been at different times destroyed and rebuilt.]

CHAPTER VIII.

MOSCOW.

The number of English horse-dealers, and English grooms in Moscow, is very great. They are in high favour among the nobles. The governor of the city was considered particularly skilful in choosing horses. It was usual to hear the nobles recounting the pedigree of their favourites, as if on an English race-course: "This," say they, "was the son of Eclipse; dam by such a one; grand-dam by another;" and so on, through a list of names which their grooms have taught them, but which have no more real reference to their cattle than to the moon. English saddles and bridles also sell at very advanced prices.*

The inhabitants of the north of Europe are exceedingly fond of the practice of hot-bathing. As soon as they have endured the high temperature of their vapour baths, which is so great that Englishmen would not conceive it possible to exist an instant in them, they stand naked, covered by profuse perspiration, cooling themselves in the open air. In summer they plunge into cold water, and in winter they roll about in snow, without sustaining injury, or ever catching cold. When the Russians leave a bath of this kind, they, moreover, drink copious draughts of mead, as cold as it can be procured. These practices, which would kill men of other nations, seemed to delight them, and to add strength to their constitution.

Being troubled with a rheumatic pain, brought on by a sudden change of weather which took place in Moscow, the thermometer falling, in one day, from 84 degrees of Fahrenheit nearly to the freezing point, I was persuaded to try a Russian bath. Nothing can be more filthy or disgusting than one of these places. They are usually filled with vermin. I had been recommended to use what they termed the Georgian bath, situated in the Sloboda, or suburbs, and which they described as the best in Moscow. It required more courage to enter this place than many of my countrymen would have exerted on so trivial an occasion. It was a small wooden hut, at one end of which there was a place, black and fearful as the entrance to Tartarus. Two figures, with long beards, and quite naked, conducted me in; and showing me a plank covered by a single sheet, with a pillow, they told me to deposit my clothes there, and to repose, if I thought proper. As soon as I had taken off my clothes, they led me through a gloomy passage, into the place called the bath; the ceremonies of which I shall be very particular in describing.

On the left hand were cisterns of water; and upon the edges of those cisterns appeared a row of polished brass vessels. On the right was a stove; and, in the middle of the room, a step to a platform elevated above the floor. The hot vapour being collected near the roof, the more a person ascends, the greater is the degree of heat to which he is exposed. A choice of temperature is therefore offered. On each side of the platform was a stove, in shape exactly resembling the tombstones in our churchyards. Their upper surface was covered by reeds, and over the bed of reeds was placed a sheet. I was directed to mount upon one of these stoves, and to place myself at full length on the

* [The following remarks by Mr Elliott (p. 368) are to the same effect:—"The number of English of the higher class in Moscow is very limited; though here, as at St Petersburg, British governesses, nursery maids, gardeners, horse-jockies, and mechanics, are retained in considerable numbers. In most large families, the individuals filling one or more of these situations are our compatriots. In the duties of a nursery, the Russians regard the English as unrivalled."]

sheet; having done which, I found myself nearly elevated to the roof of the bath, and the heat of ascending vapour threw me immediately into a most profuse perspiration. The sensation was precisely the same which I experienced in the subterraneous cavern, called the Baths of Nero, on the coast of Baia, near Naples. I neglected to take my thermometer with me on this occasion, but the ordinary temperature of the Russian bath is well known. According to Storch, it varies from 104 to 122 degrees of Fahrenheit; and sometimes, upon the upper stages near the roof, it is twenty degrees above fever heat. Thus situated, a man began to rub me all over with a woollen cloth, made into a bag, covering one of his hands, till the exterior surface of the skin peeled off. As soon as he had finished the operation with the woollen cloth, he bade me descend, and poured several vessels of warm water on my head, whence it fell all over my body. He then placed me on the floor, and washed my hair with his hands, scratching my head in all parts with his nails—a great luxury to the Russians, and for reasons it is not necessary to explain. After this, he again made me ascend the stove, where once more stretching me at length, he prepared a copious lather of soap, with which, and a woollen cloth, he again rubbed my body, when I descended a second time, and was again soused with vessels of water. I was next desired to extend myself on the stove for the third time, and informed that the greatest degree of heat would be given. To prepare for this, they cautioned me to lie on my face, and keep my head down. Birch boughs were then brought, with their leaves on, and dipped in soap and hot water, with which they began to scrub me afresh; at the same time, some hot water being cast upon red-hot cannon balls, and upon the principal stove, such a vapour passed all over me, that it came like a current of fire upon my skin. If I ventured to raise my head an instant, it seemed as though I was breathing flames. It was impossible to endure this process for any length of time; therefore, finding myself unable to cry out, I forced my way down from the stove, and was conducted to the lower part of the room, where I seated myself on the floor, and the doors being opened, soon recovered sufficiently to walk out of the bath.

Eminent physicians have endeavoured to draw the attention of the English government to the importance of public baths, and of countenancing their use by every aid of example and encouragement. While we wonder at their prevalence among all the eastern and northern nations, may we not lament that they are so little used in our own country? We might, perhaps, find reason to allow, that erysipelas, surfeit, rheumatism, colds, and a hundred other evils, particularly all sorts of cutaneous and nervous disorders, might be alleviated, if not prevented, by a proper attention to bathing. The inhabitants of countries in which the bath is constantly used, anxiously seek it, in full confidence of getting rid of all such complaints, and they are rarely disappointed. I may add my testimony to theirs, having, not only upon the occasion which gave rise to these remarks, but in cases of obstructed perspiration much more alarming, during my travels, experienced their good effect. I hardly know any act of benevolence more essential to the comfort of the community, than that of establishing, by public benefaction, the use of baths for the poor, in all our cities and manufacturing towns. The lives of many might be saved by them. In England they are considered only as articles of luxury; yet throughout the vast empire of Russia, through all Finland, Lapland, Sweden, and Norway, there is no cottage so poor, no hut so destitute, but it possesses its vapour bath, in which all its inhabitants, every Saturday at least, and every day in cases of sickness, experience comfort and salubrity. Lady Mary Wortley Montague, in spite of all the prejudices which prevailed in England against inoculation, introduced it from Turkey. If another person of equal influence would endeavour to establish throughout Great Britain the use of warm and vapour baths, the inconveniences of our climate would be done away. Perhaps at some future period they may become general; and statues may perpetuate the memory of the patriot, the statesman, or the sovereign, to whom society will be indebted for their institution. When we are told, that the illustrious Bacon lamented in vain the disuse of baths among the Europeans, we have little reason to indulge the expectation. At the same time, an additional testimony to their salutary effects, in affording longevity and vigorous health to a people otherwise liable to mortal diseases from a rigorous climate and an unwholesome diet, may contribute to their establishment. Among the ancients, baths were public edifices, under the immediate inspection of the government. They were considered as institutions which owed their origin to absolute necessity, as well as to decency and cleanliness. Under her emperors, Rome had near a thousand such buildings, which, besides their utility, were regarded as masterpieces of architectural skill and sumptuous decoration. In Russia, they have only vapour-baths, and these are, for the most part, in wretched wooden hovels. If wood is wanting, they are formed of mud, or scooped in the banks of rivers and lakes; but in the palaces of the nobles, however they may vary in convenience or splendour of materials, the plan of construction is always the same.

This universal custom of the bath may be mentioned as an example of the resemblance between Muscovites and more oriental people; but there are many others; such, for instance, as the ceremony of howling and tearing the hair at the death of relatives; the practice among the nobles of employing slaves to rub the soles of their feet, in order to induce sleep; and the custom of maintaining buffoons, whose occupation it is to relate strange and extravagant tales for a similar purpose.

CHAPTER IX.

MOSCOW.

A CURIOUS contrast to the splendour in which we had hitherto beheld Plato, archbishop of Moscow, was offered, during a visit we made to him at the convent of *Nicoll na Perrera*, a seminary for young priests near the city. I had long wished for an opportunity of conversing with this remarkable man. He was preceptor to the Emperor Paul; and is known to the world by his correspondence with Monsieur Dutens. Upon our arrival at the convent, we were told he was then walking in a small garden, the care of which constituted his principal pleasure; and the employment characterised the simplicity and innocence of his life. As we entered the garden, we found him seated on a turf bank, beneath the windows of the refectory, attended by a bishop, an old man his vicar, the abbé of the monastery, and some others of the monks. I could scarcely believe my eyes when they told me it was Plato; for though I had often seen him in his archiepiscopal vestments, his rural dress had made such an alteration, that I did not know him. He was habited in a striped silk bed-gown, with a nightcap like the silk nets which hang down the back, as commonly seen on the heads of Italian postilions; and a pair of woollen stockings, with feet of coarse linen, fastened on with twine in an uncouth manner. He was without shoes, but a pair of yellow slippers lay at some distance. By his side, on the bank, was placed his broad-brimmed hat, such as is worn by the shepherdesses of the Alps; and in the hat-band, to complete the resemblance, was stuck a bunch of withered flowers. His white beard, and that mildness and animation of countenance which distinguished him, gave to his features a most pleasing expression. He desired to know who we were; and being answered, Englishmen—"What!" said he, "all English? I wonder what your countrymen can find sufficiently interesting in Russia, to bring you so far from home, and in such times as these?" But having made this observation in French, he looked cautiously around him, and began to ask the monks, severally, whether they understood French. Finding them perfectly ignorant of that language, he bade me sit by him, while the rest forming a circle, he entertained

us with a conversation, in which there was science, wit, and freedom, sufficient to astonish any traveller, in such a country, and at such a period.

"Well," said he, "you thought me perhaps a curiosity, and you find me as naturally disposed for observation as you could wish (pointing to his woollen stockings and his strange dress)—an old man bending with years and infirmities." I replied, that "I had the honour to see him in his greatest splendour, on the night of the ceremony of the Resurrection, in the cathedral of the Kremlin." "And what did you think of that ceremony?" said he. I answered, that "I considered it as one of the most solemn I had ever witnessed, not excepting even that of the Benediction at Rome." "And interesting?" added his grace. "Very much so," said I; at which he burst into a fit of laughter, holding his sides, and saying, "I had lost a night's rest to attend the ceremony of a religion I did not profess, and called it *interesting*."

We accompanied him round his garden, admiring the beauty of the situation, and the serenity of the climate. "But do you," said he, "prefer our climate to yours?" I told him, that "I had found the Russian climate severe, but the cold weather in winter not attended by so much humidity as in England—that the atmosphere was clear and dry." "Oh yes," said he, "very dry indeed! and it has, in consequence, dried up all our fruit trees."

Afterwards, he inquired where we were going; and being told to Kuban Tartary and to Constantinople—"God preserve me!" he exclaimed, "what a journey! but nothing is difficult to Englishmen; they traverse all the regions of the earth. My brother," continued he, "was a traveller, and educated in your country, at Oxford; but I have never been any where, except at Petersburg and Moscow. I should have been delighted in travelling, if I had enjoyed the opportunity, for books of travels are my favourite reading. I have lately read (and the significant smile by which the words were accompanied could not be misunderstood) the Voyage of Lord Macartney." He laughed, however, at the result of his brother's education. "The English," said he, "taught him to declaim in their way: he used to preach his fine flourishing sermons to us Russians; very fine sermons, but they were all translated from the English. Some of your divines write beautifully, but with inconceivable freedom. It was once discussed in an English sermon, whether a people had power to dethrone their king." "Your grace may say more," said I; "we had once a prelate, who, preaching before his sovereign, felt himself at liberty to discuss his conduct to his face." "I wish," said he, "we had such a fellow here!"—but, aware of the interpretation which might be put upon his words, and perhaps not daring to end with them, he added, after a pause, "we would send him to enjoy the full liberty of preaching in the free air of Siberia." He was much amused at a reply he once received from an English clergyman, of the factory at Petersburg, when asked if he intended to marry. "If I am fortunate enough to become a bishop, I shall marry some rich citizen's daughter, and live at my ease." [The bishops in the Greek church are not allowed to marry.]

He showed us the apartments of the ancient patriarch who founded the convent and built the church, which he endeavoured to preserve in their pristine state. They consisted of several small vaulted Gothic chambers, which now contain the library. I took this opportunity to ask if any translation of the classics existed in the Sclavonian language among the manuscripts dispersed in the different libraries of the Russian monasteries. He answered me in the negative; and said they had nothing worth notice until the time of the Patriarch Nicon. As he was well versed in Sclavonic, I questioned him concerning its affinity to the Russian. He assured me the two languages were almost the same; that the difference was only a distinction of dialect; and that neither of them had the smallest resemblance to the language of Finland.

In this convent, 150 students are instructed in Greek, Latin, and rhetoric. After a certain time, they are sent to complete their education in other seminaries at Moscow. The church is lofty and spacious; the table for the sacrament, as in all other Russian and Greek churches, is kept in the sanctuary, behind the altar, where women are not permitted to enter. The archbishop, who had visited our English church at Petersburg, observed that our table was uncovered, except when the sacrament was administered; a degree of economy which he expressed himself unable to comprehend, or to reconcile with the piety and liberality of the English nation. What would he have said, if he had beheld the condition of the communion tables in some of our country churches? In Russia, they are always covered with the richest cloth which can be procured, and generally with embroidered velvet.

On the 28th of May we again saw him in great splendour, at the burial of Prince Galitzin, in Moscow. This ceremony was performed in a small church near the Mareschal bridge. The body was laid in a superb crimson coffin, richly embossed with silver, and placed beneath the dome of the church. On a throne, raised at the head of the coffin, stood the archbishop, who read the service. On each side were ranged the inferior clergy, clothed as usual in the most costly robes, bearing in their hands wax tapers, and burning incense. The ceremony began at ten in the morning. Having obtained admission to the church, we placed ourselves among the spectators, immediately behind his grace. The chanting had a solemn and sublime effect: it seemed as if choristers were placed in the upper part of the dome, which perhaps was really the case. The words uttered were only a constant repetition of "*Lord have mercy upon us!*" or in Russian, "*Ghospodi pomilui!*" When the archbishop turned to give his benediction to all the people, he observed us, and added, in Latin, "*Pax vobiscum!*"—["Peace be with thee!"] to the astonishment of the Russians, who, not comprehending the new words introduced into the service, muttered among themselves.* Incense was then offered to the pictures and to the people: and, that ceremony ended, the archbishop read aloud a declaration, purporting that the deceased died in the true faith; that he had repented of his errors, and that his sins were absolved. Then

* There is a passage in Mr Heber's Journal, very characteristic of this extraordinary man. Mr Heber, with his friend Mr Thornton, paid him a visit in the convent of Befania; and in his description of the monastery, I find the following account of the archbishop:—"The space beneath the rocks is occupied by a small chapel, furnished with a stove for winter devotion; and, on the right hand, is a little narrow cell, containing two coffins, one of which is empty, and destined for the present archbishop; the other contains the bones of the founder of the monastery, who is regarded as a saint. The oak coffin was almost bit to pieces by different persons afflicted with the toothache, for which a rub on this board is a specific. Plato laughed as he told us this; but said, '*As they do it* DE BON CŒUR, *I would not undeceive them.*' This prelate has been long very famous in Russia as a man of ability. His piety has been questioned, but from his conversation we drew a very favourable idea of him. Some of his expressions would have rather singed the whiskers of a very orthodox man, but the frankness and openness of his manners, and the liberality of his sentiments, pleased us highly. His frankness on subjects of politics was remarkable. The clergy throughout Russia are, I believe, inimical to their government: they are more connected with the peasants than most other classes of men, and are strongly interested in their sufferings and oppressions, to many of which they themselves are likewise exposed. They marry very much among the daughters and sisters of their own order, and form almost a caste. I think Bonaparte rather popular among them. Plato seemed to contemplate his success as an inevitable and not very alarming prospect. He refused to draw up a form of prayer for the success of the Russian arms. 'If,' said he, 'they are really penitent and contrite, let them shut up their places of public amusement for a month, and I will then celebrate public prayers.' His expressions of dislike to the nobles and wealthy classes were strong and singular, as also the manner in which he described the power of an emperor of Russia, the dangers which surround him, and the improbability of any rapid improvement. '*It would be much better*,' said he, '*had we a constitution like that of England.*' Yet I suspect he does not wish particularly well to us in our war with France."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

turning to us, as the paper was placed in the coffin, he said again in Latin—"This is what all you foreigners call *the passport;* and you relate, in books of travels, that we believe no soul can go to Heaven without it. Now I wish you to understand what it really is; and to explain to your countrymen, upon my authority, that it is nothing more than a declaration, or certificate, concerning the death of the deceased." Then laughing, he added, "I suppose you commit all this to paper; and one day I shall see an engraving of this ceremony, with an old archbishop giving a passport to St Peter."

The lid of the coffin being now removed, the body of the prince was exposed to view; and all the relatives, servants, slaves, and other attendants, began their loud lamentations, as is the custom among the Russians; and each person, walking round the corpse, made prostration before it, and kissed the lips of the deceased. The venerable figure of an old slave presented a most affecting spectacle. He threw himself flat on the pavement, with a degree of violence which might have cost him his life, and, quite stunned by the blow, remained a few seconds insensible; afterwards, his loud sobs were heard; and we saw him tearing off and scattering his white hairs. He had, according to the custom of the country, received his liberty upon the death of the prince; but choosing rather to consign himself for the remainder of his days to a convent, he retired for ever from the world, saying, "Since his dear old master was dead, there was no one living who cared for him."

A plate was handed about, containing boiled rice and raisins—a ceremony I am unable to explain. The face of the deceased was covered by linen, and the archbishop poured consecrated oil, and threw a white powder, probably lime, several times upon it, pronouncing some words in the Russian language; which, supposing us not to understand, he repeated aloud in Latin: "Dust thou art, and unto dust thou art returned!" The lid of the coffin was then replaced; and after a requiem, "sweet as from blest voices," a procession began from the church to a convent in the vicinity of the city, where the body was to be interred. There was nothing solemn in this part of the ceremony. It began by the slaves of the deceased on foot, all of whom were in mourning. Next went the priests, bearing tapers; then came the body, on a common drosky, the whip of the driver being bound with crape; and afterwards a line of carriages, of the miserable description before observed. But, instead of that slow movement usually characteristic of funeral processions, the priests and the people ran as fast as they could; and the body was jolted along in an uncouth manner. Far behind the last rumbling vehicle were seen persons following out of breath, unable to keep up with their companions.

The stalls of fruit and food in the streets of Moscow prove very beneficial to the health of the people; especially to the children, who are ill fed at home. At these places, for a few copecks, which they contrive to collect, they get a wholesome dinner. I saw them served at the stalls with plates of boiled rice, over which was poured a little honey; and for each of these they paid about a penny English. In the spring they sell apples (which they have a remarkable method of preserving through the winter, though I could not gain information how this was contrived), baked pears, salad, salted cucumbers (which are antiscorbutic, and esteemed delicious by Russians of every rank), wild berries, boiled rice, quass, honey, and mead. As almost every eatable receives a formal benediction from the priests, before it is considered fit for use, no Russian will touch any article of food until that ceremony has taken place. A particular church near the Mareschal Bridge is set apart for the benediction of apples; and this is not given until the first apple drops from the tree, which is brought in great form to the priest.

It is evident that a practice more judicious can hardly be adopted; as the people [being assured of the ripeness of the fruit] are thus saved from many maladies. I have seen a whole French army debilitated through want of caution in this respect. A Mahometan would sooner eat pork, than a Russian unconsecrated fruit. At Petersburg the benediction of water takes place upon the ice of the Neva. In Moscow they have a floating stage upon the river below the Kremlin, on which this ceremony is performed.

The manner in which the Russian peasants clothe their legs and feet, throughout the whole empire, from its simplicity and the materials used, indicates great antiquity. It prevails all over Lapland, and the other northern territories of Sweden and Norway. Their shoes are made of the matted bark of trees; their legs being covered by bandages of woollen cloth, bound on with thongs of the same materials as the sandals. These thongs, passing through the loose texture of the sandal, and afterwards entwined about the leg, keep the whole apparatus together.

The wealth of the nobles is really enormous. We have not in England individuals possessing equal property, whatever their rank or situation may be. Some of them have 70, and even 100,000 peasants. Their fortunes are estimated by the number of their peasants, as West India merchants reckon their income by the number of their hogsheads. These peasants pay them, upon the average, ten roubles annually in specie. If the peasant has been required by his lord to give him three days of labour during each week, the annual tax is said to be proportionally diminished. But, in despite of all the pretended regulations made in favour of the peasant, the tax he is called upon to pay, or the labour he is compelled to bestow, depends wholly on the caprice or the wants of his tyrant. Labour is not exacted from males only. Women, and children from the age of ten and upwards, are obliged to perform their equal share. Tithes are moreover demanded of whatever may remain in their hands; of linen, poultry, eggs, butter, pigs, sheep, lambs, and every product of the land, or of domestic manual labour. Should a peasant by any misfortune be deprived of the tribute expected by his lord, he must beg, borrow, or steal, to make up the deficiency. Some of the nobles choose to converse with foreigners upon the condition of their slaves; and when that is the case, not the smallest reliance can be placed upon the statement they afford.

The only property a Russian nobleman allows his peasant to possess, is the food he cannot, or will not, eat himself—the bark of trees, chaff, and other refuse; quass, water, and fish oil. If the slave has sufficient ingenuity to gain money without his knowledge, it becomes a dangerous possession; and, when once discovered, falls instantly into the hands of his lord. A peasant in the village of Celo Molody, near Moscow, who had been fortunate enough to scrape together a little wealth, wished to marry his daughter to a tradesman of the city; and for that purpose, that she should be free, he offered 15,000 roubles for her liberty; a most unusual price of freedom, and a much greater sum than persons of his class, situated as he was, will be found to possess. The tyrant took the ransom, and then told the father that both the girl and the money belonged to him; and therefore she must still continue among the number of his slaves! What a picture do these facts afford of the state of Russia! It is thus we behold the subjects of a vast empire stripped of all they possess, and existing in the most abject servitude—victims of tyranny and torture, of sorrow and poverty, of sickness and famine!

Mr Heber's journal contains so much interesting information concerning the state of the peasants in Russia, that I shall here subjoin a copious extract from it:—

"We observed a striking difference between the peasants of the crown and those of individuals. The former are almost all in comparatively easy circumstances. Their *abrock*, or rent, is fixed at five roubles a-year, all charges included; and as they are sure that it will never be raised, they are more industrious. The peasants belonging to the nobles have their abrock regulated by their means of getting money; at an average, throughout the empire, of eight or ten roubles. It then becomes not a rent for land, but a downright tax on their industry. Each male peasant is obliged by law to labour three days in each week for his proprietor. This law

takes effect on his arriving at the age of fifteen. If the proprietor chooses to employ him tho other days, he may—as, for example, in his manufactory; but he then finds him in food and clothing. Mutual advantage, however, generally relaxes this law; and excepting such as are selected for domestic servants, or, as above, are employed in manufactories, the slave pays a certain abrock, or rent, to be allowed to work all the week on his own account. The master is bound to furnish him with a house and a certain portion of land. The allotment of land is generally settled by the *starosta* (elder of the village), and a meeting of the peasants themselves. In the same manner, when a master wants an increase of rent, he sends to the starosta, who convenes the peasants; and by that assembly it is decided what proportion each individual must pay. If a slave exercises any trade which brings him in more money than agricultural labour, he pays a higher abrock. If by journies to Petersburg, or other cities, he can still earn more, his master permits his absence, but his abrock is raised. The smallest earnings are subject to this oppression. The peasants employed as drivers at the post-houses, pay an abrock out of the *drink-money* they receive, for being permitted to drive, as otherwise the master might employ them in other less profitable labour on his own account. The aged and infirm are provided with food, and raiment, aud lodging, at their owner's expense. Such as prefer casual charity to the miserable pittance they receive from their master, are frequently furnished with passports, and allowed to seek their fortune; but they sometimes pay an abrock even for this permission to beg. The number of beggars in Petersburg is very small; as when one is fouud, he is immediately sent back to his owner. In Moscow, and other towns, they are numerous, though I think less so than in London. They beg with great modesty, in a low and humble tone of voice, frequently crossing themselves, and are much less clamorous and importunate than a London beggar.

Tho master has the power of correcting his slaves, by blows or confinement; but if he is guilty of any great cruelty, he is amenable to the laws, which are, we are told, executed in this point with impartiality. In one of the towers of the Kitaigorod, at Moscow, there was a Countess Soltikof confined for many years with a most unrelenting severity, which she merited for cruelty to her slaves. Instances of barbarity are, however, by no means rare. At Kostroma, the sister of Mr Kotchetof, the governor, gave me an instance of a nobleman who had nailed, if I understood her right, his servant to a cross. The master was sent to a monastery, and the business hushed up. Domestic servants, and those employed in manufactories, as they are more exposed to cruelty, so they sometimes revenge themselves in a terrible manner.

No slave can quit his village, or his master's family, without a passport. Any person arriving in a town or village, must produce his to the starosta; and no one can harbour a stranger without one. If a person is found dead without a passport, his body is sent to the hospital for dissection; of which we saw an instance. The punishment of runaways is imprisonment, and hard labour in the government works; and a master may send to the public workhouse any peasant he chooses. The prisons of Moscow and Kostroma were chiefly filled with such runaway slaves, who were for the most part in irons. On the frontier they often escape, but in the interior it is almost impossible; yet during the summer, desertions are very common, and they sometimes lurk about for many months, living miserably in the woods. This particularly happens when there is a new levy of soldiers. The soldiers are levied, one from every certain number of peasants, at the same time all over the empire. But if a master is displeased with his slave, he may send him for a soldier at any time he pleases, and take a receipt from government; so that he sends one man less the next levy. He also selects the recruits he sends to government; with this restriction, that they are young men, free from disease, have sound teeth, and are five feet two inches high.

The starosta, of whom mention has been so frequently made, is an officer resembling the ancient bailiff of au English village. He is chosen, we are told (at least generally) by the peasants, sometimes annually, and sometimes for life. He is answerable for the abrocks to the lord—decides small disputes among the peasants—gives billets for quarters to soldiers, or to government officers on a journey, &c. Sometimes the proprietor claims the right of appointing the starosta.

A slave can, on no pretence, be sold out of Russia, nor in Russia, to any but a person born noble, or if not noble, having the rank of lieutenant-colonel. This rank is not confined to the military—it may be obtained by those in civil situations. (Professor Pallas had the rank of brigadier.) This law is however eluded, as plebeians frequently purchase slaves for hire, by making use of the name of some privileged person; and all nobles have the privilege of letting out their slaves.

Such is the political situatiou of the peasant. With regard to his comforts, or means of supporting existence, I do not think they are deficient. Their houses are in tolerable repair, moderately roomy, and well adapted to the habits of the people. They have the air of being sufficiently fed, and their clothing is warm and substantial. Fuel, food, and the materials for building, are very cheap, but clothing is dear. In summer they generally wear Nantkin *caftans*, one of which costs thirteen roubles. The *labkas* (linden-bark sandals) cost nothing, except in great towns. They wear a blue Nantkin shirt, trimmed with red, which costs two or three roubles, linen drawers, and linen or hempen rags wrapped round their feet and legs, over which the richer sort draw their boots. The sheep-skin *schaub* costs eight roubles, but it lasts a loug time—as does a lamb-skin cap, which costs three roubles. The common red cap costs about the same. For a common cloth *caftan*, such as the peasants sometimes wear, we were asked thirty roubles. To clothe a Russian peasant or a soldier, is, I apprehend, three times as chargeable as in England. Their clothing, however, is strong, and, being made loose and wide, lasts longer. It is rare to see a Russian quite in rags. With regard to the idleness of the lower classes here, of which we had heard great complaiuts, it appears, that where they have an interest in exertion they by no means want industry, and have just the same wish for luxuries as other people. Great proprietors, who never raise their abrocks, such as Count Sheremetof, have very rich and prosperous peasants. The difference we noticed between peasants belonging to the crown and those of the nobility, has been already mentioned. The crown peasants, indeed, it is reasonable to suppose, are more happy—living at their ease, paying a moderate quit-rent, and choosing their owu starosta. They are, however, more exposed to vexation and oppression from the petty officers of the crown. The levies for the army are considered by the peasants as times of great terror. Baron Bode told me they generally keep the levy as secret as possible, till they have fixed on and secured a proper number of men. They are generally chained till they are sworn in—the fore part of the head is then shaved, aud they are thus easily distinguished from other peasants. After this, desertion is very rare, and very difficult.* The distress of one of their popular dramas, which we saw acted a Yareslof, in the private theatre of the governor, Prince Galitzin, consisted in a young man being pressed for a

* [The account here given by Dr Clarke and Mr Heber of tho stato of the vassals in Russia, may be characterised as accurate and comprehensive, and in accordance with tho statements of almost all travellers. It is, however, universally admitted, that Dr Clarke has been much too severe in his remarks on the Russian nobles with regard to this subject. At the samo time, the evils of slavery must always be considerable, and the condition of the peasantry in a great degree depend upon the personal character of each proprietor. When he is poor and needy, no doubt great injustice is perpetrated upon the peasants, whilst under rich and liberal lords their lot is almost an enviable one. Some very wealthy merchants in the large towns have been slaves, and it is stated that a vassal of Count Shérémeticff (the wealthiest subject in Russia, and perhaps in the world) paid no less than £15,000 for the emancipation of himself and his family.]

soldier. In the short reign of Peter II., who, it is well known, transferred the seat of government again to Moscow, no man was pressed for a soldier—the army was recruited by volunteers, and slaves were permitted to enter."

Traversing the provinces south of Moscow, the land is as the garden of Eden—a fine soil, covered with corn, and apparently smiling in plenty. Enter the cottage of the poor labourer, surrounded by all these riches, and you find him dying of hunger, or pining from bad food, and in want of the common necessaries of life. Extensive pastures covered with cattle afford no milk to him. In autumn the harvest yields no bread for his children —the lord claims all the produce. At the end of summer, every road in the southern provinces is filled with caravans, bearing corn and all sorts of provisions, every produce of labour and the land, to supply the lords of Moscow and Petersburg, and the markets of these two capitals, which, like whirlpools, swallow all that comes within their vortex, with never-ending voracity. Can there be a more affecting sight, than a Russian family, having got in an abundant harvest, in want of the common stores to supply and support them, through the rigours of their long and inclement winter? Let us hasten from its contemplation!

[NEW ACCOUNT OF MOSCOW.

Since the time of Dr Clarke, Moscow has been somewhat altered. It is well known that in the year 1812, the Emperor Napoleon invaded Russia, and occupied the city of Moscow. A conflagration, unexampled in modern history, was the consequence, that ancient capital being delivered over to the flames by the refined though desperate policy of the Russian government. Upwards of two-thirds of the city were entirely destroyed, and the population dispersed in all directions.

The rebuilding of Moscow has been singularly rapid. In 1824, the town already contained more houses than before the fire. The splendid palaces of the nobility arose as it were by enchantment, and that singular contrast between them and the wretched hovels at their sides, always so striking a feature in Moscow, is not so observable as formerly. Many public buildings have been added, and considerable improvements effected in the general arrangement of the city.

Moscow remains as before divided into four quarters; 1st, The Kremlin, or more properly the Kremle; 2d, The Kitai-gorod; 3d, The Beloi-gorod, or White-town; and 4th, The Zemlianoi-gorod, or Earthen-town. To these may be added, the Slobodi, or Suburbs.

1st, The Kremle is derived from the Tartar word *krim*, or *krem*, which signifies a fortress. It is situated on the north side of the Moskva, which flows below it, and it is triangular in form. It is surrounded by a high wall or fortification, with a great round tower at each angle, besides steeples and watch-towers of various shape and appearance. All the edifices within it are built of stone, or at least have stone foundations, while the superstructures are formed of brick stuccoed, and painted white, orange, yellow, blue, green, &c. The singular appearance of the various-coloured spires and bulbous domes of the cathedrals and towers in the Kremle, has struck every traveller, and appears generally to have left an impression of magnificence. There are no private houses within its walls, the whole of the buildings belonging to the crown, or being devoted to ecclesiastical purposes.

The Kremle is not only the most interesting from historical associations, but is also the most splendid portion of Moscow. A bare enumeration of some of the principal edifices it contains, will give an idea of its architectural grandeur. There are four principal cathedrals, respectively dedicated to the assumption of the Virgin Mary, to St Michael, to the annunciation, and to the transfiguration, together with several churches of inferior note. The ancient Palace of the Tzars has been described by Dr Clarke. A new palace, commenced by the Empress Elizabeth and enlarged by Paul, was destroyed in 1812. It was rebuilt by Alexander, upon a very large scale, in 1817. By the same monarch was erected the Imperial Museum (sometimes called the Armoury), one of the most chaste and elegant buildings in Moscow. It now contains the curiosities formerly lodged in the old palace. The arsenal, a building of enormous strength, was partly blown up in 1812. It is now surrounded by 900 of the cannon of the army of Napoleon, captured after the retreat from Moscow. Several government offices are placed in the Kremle, amongst which is conspicuous the Senate-house, erected in the reign of Catherine II. The Chudof Monastery and Voznesenskoi Nunnery, with several churches attached to each, will complete the partial enumeration of the edifices in the Kremle.

2d, The Kitai-gorod, or Chinese-town, is the second division of Moscow. It is larger than the Kremle, and forms a kind of oblong square, all the sides of which are flanked by walls which are furnished with battlements, towers, bastions, and gates. All the edifices in the Kitai-gorod are of brick or stone, painted of various colours, with iron roofs. In this division are four principal streets, with the celebrated Krasnaya Plostchad, or Beautiful Place, very appropriately so called. It is a large oblong square, bounded on the west by the east wall of the Kremle and the adjoining boulevard; on the east by the grand façade of the *bargaining shops;* on the north by the double gates of the Resurrection, with the adjoining building on each side for tribunals and offices, and by the cathedral church of Kazan; and on the south by the Pokrovskoi cathedral (mentioned by Dr Clarke as the church of St Basil), and the *Lobnoye Mesto*, a high circular building, considered sacred, as representing Mount Calvary, or the Place of a Skull. In the centre of the square is a monument erected by the late emperor to Minin and Pojarskii, two Russian patriots, who drove the Poles out of Moscow in the beginning of the seventeenth century.

During the day the "Beautiful Place" is the most animated scene in Moscow. It is crowded by equipages, and by innumerable visitors frequenting the bargaining shops, which are worthy a particular description. It is a custom derived from Asia, that in the towns of Russia the principal shops are all assembled together, where goods of every description are exposed for sale. Behind a piazza with wide arcades, are ranges of shops crowded together, with broad alleys between them, covered over, and lighted from the top. The shops have no windows, but large doors serve as substitutes. Behind a long bench or table the merchant takes his station, whilst the customers stand in the alley, seldom entering the shop, and from there make their bargains. When it is considered that there are six thousand shops thus grouped together, to which the Moscovians resort in multitudes, the crowd, noise, and bustle, may be well conceived. It is only during the day that this extraordinary scene is witnessed, for as no fire or candles are permitted within the shops at night, all is gloom and stillness. Most of the retail commerce of Moscow is here carried on; and as the Russian shopkeepers are famous for imposition and fraud, no purchase is made until after a long contest, and thus they are most aptly styled the "bargaining shops."

There is a great number of churches in the Kitai-gorod, one of which, the church of St Nicholas, is famous for its possession, according to popular belief, of the uncorrupted bodies of the evangelists Matthew, Mark, Luke, of John the Baptist, Titus, and several of the apostles. In the Kitai-gorod is situated the celebrated foundling hospital of Moscow. This hospital was founded in the year 1763. It consists of an immense square of building, four large stories high, besides the basement. A lying-in hospital is also attached to it.

The children are brought to the porter's lodge, and received without any recommendation. If no ticket be affixed to the child, the person is asked no other questions than whether it is baptised, and what is its name. The number of daily admissions is great: more nurses are frequently required than can be found, so that the food of the infants is often undesirable and improper. The lying-in house admits all pregnant women who

make application, without exception, without inquiry, and without expense.

It is very difficult to obtain accurate details respecting this magnificent institution, especially as to the mortality. Dr Lyall ascertained, that on the 16th January 1819, there were—

Foundlings out of the hospital,	7642
Ditto in the hospital,	1138
Total,	8780
Total number who dined that day within the establishment,	1447
Foundlings admitted the day before,	28
Ditto admitted last year,	4340

The children are all well clothed, fed, and educated. The boys are maintained to the age of 24, and the girls to that of 20, when they are discharged free of all obligations to the charity. It is maintained by part of the profits of the *lombard*, or bank and pawnbroking establishment attached to it, and by voluntary subscriptions. One individual named Dimidof, is mentioned by Archdeacon Coxe as having contributed about £200,000 to its funds.

The following list is given of the children belonging to the hospital in 1824:—

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Pensioners and pupils of the house,	504	651	1155
In the city at the houses of their parents,	758	708	1466
At the hospital, bound apprentices, at the university, at the academy, and at other places,	94	43	137
In the villages, including those of governments besides Moscow,	4294	5023	9317
Grand total,	5650	6425	12075

(Frankland, vol. II. p. 288.)

When the pupils of the hospital leave the establishment, having finished their education, they are free, and receive a passport as such, and they cannot be made slaves upon any pretence.

3d, The third division of Moscow is called Beloi-gorod, or White-town, from its having been formerly surrounded by a white wall, which is now demolished, and a splendid boulevard formed upon its site. The Beloi-gorod contains many fine palaces of the nobles, and a number of distinguished edifices, as the University, the Medico-Chirurgical Academy, the Foundling Hospital, the Post-Office, the Foreign Office, the mansion of the Governor-General, the Theatre, the assembly rooms of the nobility, six monasteries, with a number of churches. One of the most extraordinary buildings in this division of the city, is the Military Exercise House, for the training of soldiers during the winter; and such are its enormous dimensions, that many thousand troops can be exercised within it at the same time.

4th, The fourth division of Moscow, the Earthen-town, so called from its rampart, now laid low and replaced with a promenade, contains little worthy of particular notice. In 1812, being chiefly constructed of wood, it was entirely consumed. As the meaner hovels with which it then abounded have not been rebuilt, its present appearance is much improved.

5th, The Slobodi, or suburbs of Moscow, contain a great number of churches and monasteries; the hospitals of Paul, Galitzin, Shérémetieff, and others; the infirmaries of Catherine, the Merchants, and the old Ceremonialists; the government prisons, houses of correction, &c. There is an imperial palace in the suburbs also, which has been used at different times as a temporary residence by the sovereigns of Russia. There is likewise an immense military hospital, and several barracks for the soldiers.

Moscow possesses a considerable number of manufactories of silk, cloth, cutlery, leather, soap, cotton, velvets, carpets, copper, and iron, &c. Many of these establishments are conducted by foreigners, but the Russians are excellent artizans, and every day makes an increase to the manufacturing population. The market of furs at Moscow is one of the most celebrated in the world.

The population of Moscow is given by Laveau for 1824, as follows:—

Nobles,	14,724
Serfs of the crown,	3,101
Ecclesiastics,	4,388
Merchants,	12,104
Foreigners,	2,385
Citizens,	28,029
Artizans,	10,384
Military,	22,191
Manufacturers,	1,854
Coachmen,	1,882
Serfs,	126,299
Miscellaneous,	19,204
Total,	246,545

Moscow is watered by three rivers, the Moskva, the Yaousa, and the Neglinnya, though the last is no longer visible. By means of the first, a water communication is maintained with St Petersburg and Nijney Novogorod, which is of great importance to the trade of the city. There are two bridges over the Moskva, one of which is below the Kremle, of hewn stone, the other below the Kitai-gorod, of wood. There are likewise four floating bridges in other parts of the city.

Moscow stands in a large plain, and covers for its population a great extent of ground. It is twenty-six miles in circumference, having for its greatest length eight miles, and its greatest breadth six miles.]

CHAPTER X.

JOURNEY FROM MOSCOW TO WORONETZ.

It is now necessary to take leave of Moscow, where we passed some pleasant hours, and many others of painful anxiety, insult, and oppression, from the creatures, spies, and agents, of the contemptible tyrant then upon the Russian throne. Our condition, as well as every Englishman's in the empire, was that of prisoners on their parole. We had been allowed to move about, but always under the vigilant eye of a troublesome and capricious police. We were detained a long time, before we could learn when we might go, or by what route we should be allowed to pass. An escape by the Livonian frontier was utterly impracticable. At last, without any passport for leaving the country, but encouraged by the advice and exertions of our good ambassador, who secretly conveyed to us letters from the governor of Petersburg to the governor of Moscow, and to General Michelson, commander-in-chief in the Crimea, we determined to set out for that peninsula by a circuitous route, through the country of the Don Cossacks, and, if possible, to visit the more distant regions of Kuban Tartary and Circassia. Having, by means of these letters, purchased the long-wished-for poderosnoi, and placed our carriage again upon its wheels, we left the city on the evening of the 31st of May, visiting our banker at his country-seat near Moscow, and proceeding that night only twenty-seven versts, to a place called Molodtzy, the first station. The next day, June 1st, we arrived at Celo Molody. Its inhabitants were once in good circumstances, but they are now completely ruined by their present master. The tyrant has a fine house, near the church, on the left hand side quitting the village. He is the person I before mentioned, who refused a poor girl liberty, after accepting her ransom, when she wished to marry in Moscow. Between Molodtzy and Celo Molody we passed through Podolsk, prettily situated between two hills, on the river Mockra. The late empress conferred on this place the name and distinction of a town; but Paul, in his determination to do every thing she would not have done, and to undo all she did, made it again a village.*

* [Alexander restored it to the rank of a town, though it is in reality little better than a village. It does not contain 1000 inhabitants. It was burned down in 1812, but has been rebuilt. Dr Clarke by mistake calls the river Pachra the Mockra.]

From Celo Molody our journey was performed with very great expedition, and over good roads, to Grischinka, and to Serpuchof; which last place perfectly resembles Newmarket, in situation, appearance, and surrounding scenery; and that nothing might be wanting to awaken the recollection of our beloved country, the *myosotis scorpioïdes* (mouse-ear scorpion grass), with other British herbs, appeared among the plants then in flower. Exactly in the spot which, with reference to the town, corresponds with the course at Newmarket, before descending into Serpuchof, is a churchyard; where, among the graves and tombs, we saw several women of the country practising a custom strictly oriental, that of visiting the sepulchres of friends long buried, bowing their heads to the ground, touching the graves with their foreheads, weeping loud, and uttering short prayers. In this road the dress of the peasants changes more frequently than in other parts of Russia; and it is remarkable, that, although the dresses of the women are so various in the different provinces, those of the men are the same throughout the empire.

Serpuchof is a handsome little town, on the river Nara. It contains a citadel enclosed by a strong rampart, and has a weywode, with his chancery. In the market we observed shops solely appropriated to the sale of the labkas, Russian sandals, which I before described, constructed of birch or linden bark.* Some authors have asserted that each peasant made his own. Formerly this might have been the case, and perhaps in the interior it is so now. Such shops, however, prove, that the rudest and most ancient form of sandal in the world, common to man in a state of nature, while roaming his primeval forests, is now an article of commerce.†

At every station on the route there is an officer, called *potchetilione*, to superintend the post, and to see that travellers are regularly supplied with horses. Some of these men are great rascals, and will not furnish horses without a bribe, even when the imperial order is produced. We experienced delay at this place from a person of this description. Our order directed, that if horses were not found at the post-house, the officer on duty was to procure others from the peasants. Being told there were no horses, I went into the office to enforce the order. As I entered, the potchetilione commanded me to take off my hat; and being asked for what reason I was to remain bareheaded in that place —"What! are you blind," he exclaimed in a tone of great insolence, "that you do not see the emperor's portrait on the wall?‡ It is a face to make Englishmen tremble." I endeavoured to answer him in his own way, by saying, "The emperor, truly! If he knew how shamefully you have belied his countenance by that vile representation, your head would come off sooner than my hat." Finding his gasconade had not succeeded, he caused it to be intimated that he wanted a rouble. I could hardly credit what I heard, and should have been ashamed to offer it, if he had not afterwards told me so himself. Horses now came quick enough, and half a dozen fine speeches into the bargain.

About a verst from this town we crossed the Oka, by a ferry.* This river falls into the Volga at Kolomna. It is a noble piece of water, almost as broad as the Thames, and well stocked with fish. We had been detained so long at Serpuchof, that evening was coming on when we arrived upon its banks. Peasants were seated in groups round different fires, singing, and boiling their fish upon the shore. Innumerable frogs, which are heard to a great distance during the night, and supply the place of nightingales in Russia, as in Denmark, joined the loud chorus, while the moon, full and splendid, rose over this fine scene.

On the south side of the river stood a small wooden hut, at which our driver desired to stop for a little quass. Having acquired a relish for this Scythian beverage, we followed him into the hut, but were astonished to find, instead of quass, five or six hogsheads, which were full of brandy, and which they were retailing and drawing off exactly as our tapsters draw beer. I could not learn where they found customers for so great a consumption, but supposed them supplied by extraordinary traffic upon the river. Yet they assured me such brandy huts were found in every village, and all of them equally well stocked.

We arrived late the same night at Celo Zavody, and waited there till sunrise. In all the villages and towns, from Moscow to Woronetz, as in other parts of Russia, are seen boys, girls, and sometimes even old men, playing with the small joint-bones of a sheep. This game is called *dibbs* by the English. It is of very remote antiquity; for I have seen it beautifully represented on Grecian vases—particularly on a vase in the collection of the late Sir William Hamilton, where a female figure appeared, most gracefully delineated, kneeling upon one knee, with her right arm extended, the palm downwards, and the bones ranged along the back of her hand and arm. She seemed in the act of throwing up the bones in order to catch them. In this manner the Russians play the game. But they have another method, which exactly corresponds with our game of marbles, and which probably afforded the origin both of marbles and of nine-pins. It consists of several larger bones placed in a row upon the ground, while, with another bone, a contest ensues who shall beat them all down, from a given distance, in the smallest number of throws.

It is a pleasing sight to see the young villagers return in the evening from their labour. They walk with flowers in their hats, moving slowly up the village, and singing a kind of hymn. In these cantations, each person bears his respective part of the harmony, and, by the exactness with which the Russians observe time and tune, the effect is very interesting. Vegetation had been very rapid, even in the interval of our short journey from Moscow; but in the garlands with which the peasants were adorned, and among the plants observed near the road, we found only the earliest flowers, and among these, none worthy of particular notice. The whole territory, whether to the south of Moscow, or in any other direction, is flat. The great oriental plain extends from that city, even to Tobolski in Siberia, and, throughout all the southern provinces, appearing generally destitute of wood, and always without enclosures. Some part of the county of Cambridge affords a striking resemblance of the country.

* See p. 36. According to Mr Heber, the linden, or lime-tree, affords the bark used for these sandals. "This practice of making shoes of linden-bark is very destructive to the trees, as a man will wear out twenty or thirty pair of sandals in a year. The lime-tree, of which these shoes are made, is a very valuable plant, owing to the construction of mats from its bark, which form a very considerable article of exportation. The lime-tree is scarce in the western provinces. In the eastern it is very plentiful, and flourishes as high as Archangel."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

† [Serpuchof is a busy industrious town of nearly 6000 inhabitants. It contains several sail-cloth manufactories, tanneries, breweries, cloth manufactories, and calico and calico-printing fabrics. The merchants carry on an extensive commerce in corn with the neighbouring districts, which they transport to Moscow in winter upon the sledge roads. They also deal in horned cattle, fish, honey, hemp, and timber. In addition to the inhabitants, there are always a good many troops stationed in Serpuchof. There are no less than eighteen churches and two monasteries in the town, the gaudy colours and gilded domes of which add to the beauty of its appearance.]

‡ Copies of the emperor's portrait were sent, by order of Paul, to all public offices of his empire. Some of them, as may be conceived, were executed in a most wretched manner. All persons were ordered to stand bareheaded before these pictures, as if in his presence. The peasants fell prostrate, and offered adoration, as to their Bogh.

* [The mode of crossing rivers in Russia varies with the season. In winter the Oka is of course frozen, and easily passed. In spring, for some days after the breaking up of the ice, all communication is stopped for carriages; but for transporting the mail a floating road of barrels and deal planks is formed, and persons on foot carry the bags. As soon as the immense masses of ice have ceased to flow, rafts are employed and continued till the middle or the end of May, when the river having regained its natural channel, an excellent floating bridge is arranged. This description will apply to all the great rivers in Russia, and sometimes great danger is incurred in effecting their passage.]

There is no reason to fear, in the writings of those who travel through Russia, any narrative of their adventures at inns. Except in large towns, such houses are never seen; and even then they are abominable. Better accommodation may be obtained in the farm-houses of the Lapland peasants, than in Russian inns. In the latter, the rooms consist of bare walls, filthy beyond description, destitute alike of beds and chairs. Sometimes they are kept by foreigners, in which case the evil is not mended; because then, although a little old furniture is introduced, it is always offensive, and affords a receptacle to all kinds of vermin. A person who wishes to traverse Russia, must consider it as ancient Scythia. He must provide every thing for which he may have occasion. If he can endure fatigue, with little sleep, dust, a scorching sun, or severe frost, with a couch of snow beneath the canopy of heaven, he may travel in a kibitki, which is the best of all methods of conveyance. If not, according to the method recommended in the first chapter, he must have a couch in his carriage, with the additional precaution of great strength in the vehicle, which should be made low, and with very wide axle-trees. This circumstance will render his journey not quite so expeditious as in a lighter machine; but he will always be able to proceed at the rate of 100 versts in a day. If he can smoke, tobacco, used moderately, may preserve him from dangerous infection, and the many unpleasant odours to which he will be exposed; it will, moreover, counteract the consequences of continual travelling and want of rest, repel vermin, and offer a resource in long fasting, upon dusty plains, on lakes, rivers, unwholesome marshes, and beneath chilling dews. It also promotes the digestion of bad food, which he must necessarily often encounter.

The next day, June 3d, we passed through Vaszany and Celo Volotia, to Tula, the capital of the government of the same name, and the Birmingham of Russia. Near the town we collected specimens of a plant which the peasants boil in milk, as a remedy for disorders of the bowels, and a disease which they term "sickness of heart." It is the *lathræa squamaria*, a plant difficult to preserve, on account of its succulent nature.

Some time before we reached Tula, it presented a considerable appearance. A very handsome church with white columns, more like a nobleman's palace than a place of worship, appeared above the town, which occupies a very extensive vale, and is filled with spires and domes. The entrance to it, both on its northern and southern side, is through triumphal arches, made of wood, and painted to imitate marble. In former times, Tula was a dangerous place to visit; the inhabitants frequently pillaging travellers in the public streets. Now it is the great emporium of hardware for the whole empire; containing a manufactory of arms, all sorts of cutlery, and works in polished steel. As soon as you arrive at the inn, a number of persons crowd the room, each bearing a sack filled with trinkets, knives, inkstands, incense-pots, silk-reels, scissors, and corkscrews. Their work is showy, but very bad, and will not bear the smallest comparison with our English wares. It is a sufficient proof of the superiority of English workmanship, that they stamp all their goods with the names of English towns and English artificers; imitating even the marks of the Sheffield manufacturers, and adopting all their models. The wares hawked about, are made during holidays and hours of leisure; and these the workmen are permitted to sell to strangers, as their own perquisites. They are able to fabricate any thing, but they finish nothing. Some of them were purposely sent to England by the late empress, who neglected no measure which might conduce to the advancement of the manufactory. I asked those who had worked in England, why their wares were so badly finished. They replied, they could finish them better, but could not bestow the necessary time; for as every article is the produce of the labour of a single person, the high price such additional labour would require would never be obtained. The best work we saw was in a manufactory of barometers, thermometers, and mathematical instruments; but the artificer was a German, who had been instructed under English masters in Petersburg. The late empress bought up almost all the work which her English workmen completed. To encourage them, she ordered spectacles by the gross, and afterwards distributed them in presents. In her palaces she had thermometers in every window; and as the servants continually broke them, her workmen had sufficient demands to keep them in constant labour by providing a supply.

Having a letter to one of the principal persons in the imperial manufactory, we were permitted to see the whole of it. They showed us a splendid collection of workmanship in guns, swords, pistols, &c., designed as presents from the inhabitants of Tula to each member of the royal family, upon Paul's accession to the throne. These offerings were refused by the emperor, upon a pretext of dissatisfaction experienced by him from the people of the place. The true cause, however, was known to be his steady determination of oppressing and insulting every individual, or set of individuals, patronised by his mother. Whatever might cast odium upon her memory—whatever might sully the lustre of her fame—by interrupting the progress of her plans for public improvement; by dismissing her statesmen and officers; by poisoning the sources whence she dispensed happiness among her people; by overthrowing her establishments; blasting the tender, but thriving, shoots of science, and of the arts which she had planted; converting good to evil, and joy to grief—was the hope and the occupation of her unnatural son. In the few years of his tyranny (for every one saw that his government would soon end) he proved a greater scourge to Russia than can be counterbalanced by another long and glorious career like that of Catherine's, marked by wisdom, wealth, power, conquest, glory, and beneficence. Already every trace of her brilliant reign had disappeared. The Russians, on the accession of Paul, fell back into the barbarity which characterised the empire before the age of their first Peter. The polished nations of Europe will be surprised to learn, that immortal as the name of Catherine appears in their annals, it was almost forgotten in Russia within four years after her death: it remained among the number of privations enjoined by the long list of public proscriptions, and was heard only in the howling of the wind that drifted the snows of Siberia—no one dared to mention it! At the same time, her favourites were displaced, her ministers rejected, her officers dismissed, her monuments overthrown; even the verst posts, which bore some marks of her taste, were demolished, and near their ruins stood a series of wooden *harlequinades*, in the absurd uniform of their mad sovereign.

Tula, in its present situation, is not likely to prove any advantage to the empire; because the inhabitants are unable to raise the water which is wanted to put the whole fabric in motion. The machinery is ill constructed, and worse preserved. Every thing seemed out of order: Workmen, with long beards, stood staring at each other, wondering what was to be done next; while their intendants and directors were drunk or asleep. Notwithstanding all this, they pretended to issue from the manufactory, in the common course of business, without any particular order from government, 1300 muskets in a week. But the name of musket is almost all that connects the appearance with the reality. It is wonderful any troops can use them; besides being clumsy and heavy, they miss fire five times out of six, and are liable to burst whenever discharged.*

The streets of Tula are paved, and its shops and

* [Great improvements have been effected in the arm-manufactory at Tula, since Dr Clarke's visit. An Englishman of the name of Jones has carried his skill and knowledge to the benefit of the Russian artizans, and the manufacture is, of course, considerably improved. But it is probable that Dr Clarke has too much depreciated the Russian muskets even of his day, when we recollect their murderous success in numberless fields of battle. Mr Tooke, Dr Kimmel, and the author (a Russian) of the Great Dictionary of the Russian Empire, have erred most egregiously on the other side, by representing the fire-arms of Tula as equal to the productions of Birmingham.]

public places present a greater appearance of activity and industry than is usual in Russia. The number of its merchants, including, I suppose, shopkeepers, is estimated at 4000; of which some are very rich. Its commerce, independent of the hard-ware manufactory, consists in European merchandise, Greek wines, and other productions of Turkey. The imperial fabric of arms employed 6000 workmen; and the number of its inhabitants was stated at 30,000. It stands in a smooth valley, on the borders of the river Upa. There are few woods in its neighbourhood, and yet they produce sufficient fuel for the consumption of the town. This may be attributed to the very great economy introduced by the use of stoves; for the heating of which, a few billets, early in the morning, suffice; and they continue afterwards to diffuse an equable warmth during the whole of the day and following night. If they are properly constructed and attended to, there is no method of heating apartments with so little expense and so many conveniences. In England, stoves are generally made of cast iron, which are not merely unwholesome, but, in small rooms, very dangerous. Why the Russian and Swedish stove has not become common in our country, where every article of fuel is so amazingly expensive, must be explained by those who prefer more costly, and perhaps more cheerful, hearths. The generality of houses in Tula are of wood; but the number of those built with stone is considerable, and increases daily. Many new buildings afford proof of increasing population. We observed women employed in repairing the pavement of the streets, which is kept in good order. The dress of the young females, when clean, displays their persons to advantage. A white shift covers the arms and the body in front, and is fastened behind with tape. It is drawn tight over the breast, and there held together by a small button.

The iron mines in the neighbourhood of this place are very considerable; they occupy an extent of more than ten miles, in a country somewhat hilly, covered by thick woods. The whole of the soil around them is impregnated with iron, but the richest ore is found towards the west. It lies scarcely concealed by a superincumbent surface not more than fourteen inches thick, consisting of sand mixed with mould, and sometimes of sand alone. From these mines the celebrated forges of Demidof, distant thirty-eight miles from Tula, derive their ore.*

As soon as we left Tula, we quitted the main road from Moscow to Cherson, and turned off due south, towards Woronetz. After ascending the heights above Tula, we were carried into a wide and desolate plain, covered only by a thin sod, on which herds of cattle were grazing. This deviation was not made, on our part, without apprehension. We had reason to fear that unknown roads might not suit a carriage ill constructed for an adventurous journey; lofty, with narrow axle-trees, and more calculated for cities than deserts. To our great satisfaction, however, and for the comfort and guidance of others who choose to follow our route, the whole distance to Woronetz may be passed over like a bowling-green, and the lightest vehicle would be exposed to no hazard of injury. This vast plain afforded us the finest road in the world, not excepting even those of Sweden, being all the way a firm hard turf, exactly like that which covers the South Downs in Sussex, and with the additional advantage of being for the most part level, extending like an ocean, in which the eye roams without discerning a single object to interrupt the uniformity. Over the first part of the journey from Tula, small copses in patches might be distinguished, and in these we noticed dwarf oaks, the first seen since we entered Russia from the Swedish frontier, except one in a garden at Moscow, shown there as a scarce plant, and cut into a barbarous form, like the yew-trees in old-fashioned English shrubberies. Among these copses we found the *potentilla anserina*, which we had seen at Tula, the *asperula odorata*, or *sweet woodroof*, and a species of *gheum*, which I was not able to ascertain.

The view of Tula from the elevated plain above it, over which the road passes towards Woronetz, is very fine. There is not a more pleasing prospect in Russia. The town itself, with its numerous white buildings, domes, towers, and rising spires, is a fine object. Trees are seen skirting the suburban downs, and spreading here and there in the valley, while cattle graze all around it. At the same time, the ear is greeted by the cheerful noise of industry and manufactures, the ringing of bells, the lowing of the herds, and the loud chorus of peasants singing their national airs, accompanying the voice either by the clapping of hands, or by the notes of their rude pipes, which they still construct of the same materials as the sandals on their feet. At this time, also, numerous caravans were passing from the Ukraine and from the Don; and the whole constituted so striking a contrast to scenes we had long been accustomed to view in the cold regions of the north, that we seemed suddenly transported to a different zone.

The rapture was not of long duration. It is impossible to imagine a place more miserable than the town or village of Dedilof, the first station, and distant only twenty miles from Tula. It consists of several timber huts, coarsely thatched with straw. The interstices of the trunks of trees, which, lying horizontally, form the walls of the huts, and are filled with mud. It stands in a wide and open district, half on the top, and half on the bottom, of a hill. At first sight it appears like a number of dunghills, or heaps of straw; and it is only by a very near approach that the traveller can be convinced of its being the residence of human beings, much less that it should figure in a Russian map as a town. It is from seeing such places that we may conceive what sort of cities and towns afford the names which we find in the Russian atlas, so profusely scattered over the eastern provinces of the empire. The wretched state of Dedilof must, however, be attributed to causes which may desolate the fairest cities of the world. It has experienced calamities, both of fire and water, and been so often reduced to ashes, that its inhabitants dread even the sight of a tobacco-pipe. Seeing me light mine, the starosta of the place was sent to request I would not use it, especially in the open air, as a casual spark might again involve them in flames. Near the upper part of this place is an immense pool filled with water, which once was level dry ground, like the rest, and covered by houses. Suddenly subterranean waters, penetrating the soil, rendered it so extremely loose, that the ground with all the houses gave way in one night, and the place was transformed into a small lake. As the whole district is swampy, rendering the soil naturally loose and spungy, and water is found immediately below the surface, there is reason to apprehend, sooner or later, that all the land about it will experience the same alteration. This is rendered more probable by

* [From what is stated in the text, it may be perhaps inferred that the iron used at Tula is found in the neighbourhood. This is not the fact, the whole being brought from Siberia, although Dr Macmichael has very incorrectly stated the contrary.—See the Hon. Mr Strangeway's remarks in Trans. of Geological Society of London. Second series, vol. I., and Lyall's Travels, vol. I. p. 41.

The number of workmen at the arm-factory exceeds 7000 at present. They form a peculiar body, and have their judges selected from among themselves. They are divided into five trades —barrel-makers, lock-makers, stock-makers, furnishing-makers, and the makers of small arms. 50,000 stand of arms can be made annually with great ease, and 100,000 in case of necessity. In time of peace, half of the workmen are unemployed, and many then go to other towns in search of employment, paying an *obrok* to the treasury of the manufactory for the permission.

In the year 1817, the Emperor Alexander engaged Mr Longmire, a Cumberland miner, to examine the coal found in the neighbourhood of Tula, with a view to substitute it for charcoal and wood as considerably less expensive. Although coal of a fair quality was found, the plan of the emperor was defeated by private intrigue, as is invariably the case in Russia. The proprietors of the forests, and many others, would have lost considerably if the demand for charcoal had been reduced, and such engines were accordingly set in motion as soon stifled the project.

There is an immense arsenal at Tula, capable of containing arms for 100,000 troops, which is not mentioned by Dr Clarke.]

an event which occurred a few years ago. At a small distance from the pool or lake I have mentioned, is another, which owes its origin to a similar catastrophe. The inhabitants of Dedilof are peasants, in the greatest poverty, and their sole occupation is tillage. In our journey thither, we invited some of their fellow-sufferers in bondage to drink our king's health, it being his birthday. We had reserved a bottle for the purpose of its celebration; so, with hearts yearning for old England, we drank "God save great George!" as we fled from despotism through a land of slaves.

We were now traversing the southern latitude of our beloved country, in a direct line towards the south; and as we approached Woronetz, observed many of our indigenous plants; the large thistle, the kilk-weed, dandelion, white clover, wood-strawberry, plantain, and the dock-weed. Sudden and loud thunder-storms, with hail and rain, majestic rolling clouds, temporary gusts of wind, and transitory sunbeams, often reminded us of an English spring. Such natural resemblance is by no means the necessary accompaniment of similarity in latitude. Naples and Constantinople are, with respect to each other, on the same line of latitude, but the climate of the latter is many degrees colder. The mild aspect of the plain of Woronetz may be attributed to the want of forests, the removal of which in all countries increases the temperature of their climate. It is a well-known passage in Horace which describes the mountain Soracte white with snow; but the climate of Italy is now so altered, that such a sight is hardly ever observed.

The next day, June 5th, we passed through the town of Boghoroditz, on an eminence above which place, Bobrinsky, said to have been a son of the late empress, by Orlof, has a magnificent seat, with an estate of the finest corn land in Russia, covering an extent of sixteen square miles, and containing, as it is reported, 70,000 peasants. Here you travel for miles and miles, and see nothing but corn. It is the richest country in the empire. The roads are so excellent, that the waggons of the peasants, although laden with stones, pass and repass with wooden wheels without any iron.

The period is uncertain when the little town of Boghoroditz was built. Its inhabitants began to hold their archives under the Tsar Feodor Alexovitz, [1584]. The shopkeepers, the Streltzi, and the Puschari, with about one hundred invalid soldiers, have composed, since that time, its inhabitants. The culture of land is described as being at present their sole resource, and the fertility of the soil has rendered it remarkably productive. They related that the peasants had even a small superfluity to sell, which they carried to Kaluga and to Tula. This place also affords plenty of honey to these towns.

From Boghoroditz we traversed boundless plains, without a single enclosure, until we came to Celo Nikitzoy, the country round which has of late years been much cultivated. Formerly it was like the rest of those deserts which the Russians call *steppes*, and which are so frequent to the south of Woronetz.* The soil here, notwithstanding its recent desolate condition, consists of nearly two feet of good black vegetable earth, lying upon a bed of marl. The plants we observed in flower on this day (June 5th) are all known in England; the *bird's-foot trefoil*, the *purple mountain milk vetch*, the *germander*, the *globe flower*, and the *wood anemone*. Nikitzkoy was once in a low and swampy spot, exceedingly unwholesome, in consequence of which the inhabitants moved it to the more elevated situation it now holds; but being too lazy to use the materials of the houses they had abandoned for their new settlement, it was deemed expedient to set them on fire; when the flames, communicating to the peat, of which there is abundance near the place, continued burning for six months with great vehemence, in spite of all the efforts made to extinguish them. The inhabitants now suffer much from a scarcity of fuel; yet they make no endeavour to collect the peat which still remains, and dry it for their hearths as a substitute. We saw here a curious funeral ceremony. The lid of the coffin, being formed of one piece of wood scooped like a canoe, was not put on till the deceased was laid in his grave. They buried him in all his clothes, even to the sandals before described. Mead was brought to the grave, to be drunk there, in a bowl with a number of small wax bougies stuck round the rim. The women kept up a kind of musical howl, singing their lamentations in strains truly dolorous. The rest of the attendants, instead of joining in the dirge, or the ceremonial rites, were occupied in crossing themselves, and in prostrations towards the east, bowing their heads until they touched with their foreheads the other graves near the place of interment. The lid of the coffin was borne first, covered by a linen cloth, after which followed the lower part with the body, so that it seemed as if two coffins were carried to one grave.

We journeyed hence to Bolshoy Platy. Soon after passing this last village, we observed, on our left, the novel and pleasing appearance of a fine wood, in which I found that beautiful plant, the *convallaria multiflora*, in full bloom, nearly six feet in height, and flourishing in great luxuriance. Afterwards we came to Effremof, written improperly *Ieremow* in the Berlin edition of the great map of Russia. It is a small insignificant town, upon a high hill, at the foot of which flows a river which falls into the Don, written *Metscha*, and *Mecza*, but pronounced *Mecha*, or *Méha* (to mark the aspirate more strongly) by the people. In a country so monotonous as that we were now passing, interesting information is neither expected nor obtained. The nature of the soil, its produce, the uniformity of scenery, and the dresses of the people, afford few remarks, and those nowise important. Sterne ludicrously, but wisely, observed, that nothing puts a writer of travels to so much difficulty, as sending him over an extensive plain. To journey many leagues and say nothing might seem like inattention; but to write observations of no moment is less pardonable than any omission.

We passed a place (Nicolaijevka) which would give me some difficulty if I should attempt to express it by any law of orthography that may convey an idea of the Russian mode of pronunciation; and leaving the government of Tula, we entered that of Orlof, as we were informed, but in the Berlin map it is laid down as the government of Orel. The female costume here is very singular. The caps of the women are triangular, having the vertex in front—so that the base extends behind like two horns, which gives them a very odd appearance; at the same time, they wear a frock hardly reaching to their knees. In their ears they have large hoop rings, not unlike those lately worn by ladies in London and Paris. They had also pendants of pieces of metal attached to a handkerchief or cap, which covered the back part of their head.

Proceeding towards Celo Petrofskia Palnia, we were much surprised by a spectacle similar to that which Bruce relates having seen in Africa. We observed at a considerable distance vertical columns of sand, reaching, as it appeared, from the earth to the clouds, and passing with amazing rapidity across the horizon. Our servant, a Greek, native of Constantinople, related an instance of a child in the Ukraine, who was taken up by one of such tornadoes, and, after being whirled round and round, had every limb broken in its fall. He declared he was eye-witness of the catastrophe. Passing the village I have named, we afterwards arrived at Eletz, or Ieletz, a large paved town of considerable extent, situated between the river whence its name has been derived, and the Sossna. This place was entirely destroyed by fire in 1745, and since rebuilt. It stands on a lofty and steep hill, and maintains a considerable commerce in cattle and corn. Agriculture here is in a very flourishing state, and the environs abound in wood. Its inhabitants consist of merchants, artizans, Puschari, and Streltzi. Its merchandise is derived from Moscow and the Ukraine, and it carries on a great in-

* [A steppe is a plain, without any visible boundary, perfectly flat, but frequently covered by spontaneous and luxuriant vegetation (like the prairies of western America). It is moreover uninhabited, except by wandering tribes, who pitch their tents there occasionally, and for a short time.]

ternal trade in the sale of honey and leather to the people of the town and neighbourhood. The number of those belonging to the crown, paying tribute, amounts to 2323. We observed a number of forges at work, and found that the number of smiths, and other artificers in iron alone, amounted to 200. Eletz is renowned for the celebrity of its forges. Part of the iron is derived from a mine near the village of Visnistdenez, the whole district around which place, to some versts in extent, exhibits a ferruginous soil. Peasants raise the surface with spades until they reach the ore; but as the superficies which forms the roof of the mine consists of clay and sand, the sides of the apertures they make are very apt to fall in: on this account they make the opening so narrow, that they are worked with difficulty—the operation being carried on entirely in shafts without any level, or even inclined excavation. There are also in the vicinity of Udgino, upon the eastern banks of the Don, in hills of the same name, mines of iron in a state of exploration; but as they have hitherto neglected the analysis of their ores, and, instead of making any selection, mix the whole together without the smallest attention to quality, the metal turns out brittle, defective, and altogether bad. In the forges of Tula, where more caution is used in this respect, the iron is of a very superior nature.

In the streets of Eletz I observed large heaps of stone for the purpose of building, the substance of which was porous and perforated, traversed in all directions by a deposit of marine animals. It resembled the kind of limestone found on the banks of the Moskva, but was more characterised by the impressions of extraneous bodies. Visiting the high banks of the river near the town, I found large masses of a similar deposit, lying in regular strata. Hereafter I shall take occasion to show, that such appearances may be observed in all the great oriental plain, declining from the Aral, the Caspian, and the Sea of Azof, towards the black Sea—authentic monuments of a vast ocean, once covering the whole of Tartary, whose diminished waters are still effecting a further retreat by the channels of Constantinople and the Dardanelles.

A musical instrument, more common in remoter periods, amused us in the streets of Eletz. It consisted of two reeds put together in the mouth. The performer was a blacksmith's boy, who played several tunes. The reeds were each about six inches in length, and not thicker than a quill. Such were the *tibiæ* used in processions, of which representations appear upon antique bas-reliefs, and the fresco paintings of Herculaneum and Pompeïa, and upon vases found in Grecian tombs.

From Eletz we continued our journey through the village of Ezvoly to Zadonetz. In all this route we were continually met by caravans from the Don, the Crimea, and other parts of the south of Russia. These caravans formed a line of waggons, thirty or forty in number, bearing brandy, wool, corn, &c. Sometimes they consisted of cattle only—cows of an ash colour, horses, goats, sheep, and hogs, all moving in the same promiscuous herd, accompanied by Malo Russians, Cossacks, and other inhabitants of Little Russia and the Ukraine.

At a short distance from Zadonetz, we crossed the Don by a ferry. It presented a broad, clear, and rapid current. The town stands upon a hill above the river, and once formed one of a line of forts erected from this place to Zaritzin, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars and Cossacks. It has now a superintendant, or *gorodnitch*, and appears, like the other towns through which we passed, to be in a thriving state. In all of them new houses were building, and the appearance of activity promised improvement.

From Zadonetz, our journey led us through the sweetest country imaginable, covered with woods full of flowers, fruit-trees, and a number of plants, which plainly indicated an approach to warmer climates. Apple and other fruit-trees sprouted wild among young oaks, and vegetables not found nearer the North Pole. The name of the river [Tanaïs] will perhaps not meet the reader's attention so readily in the compound word Zadonetz, as if written *Zadonsk;* in which manner it appears in the best maps. I have imitated the mode of pronunciation as nearly as possible. *Donetz* and *Donsk* are both names of the Don. Farther to the south, and nearer the mouths of the river, the pronunciation is sometimes *Danaetz*, or *Danaets*, and *Tdanaets*—hence the transition to *Tanaïs* is not very equivocal—nor can much doubt be entertained concerning the origin of the appellation bestowed by the ancients upon the river. In what a variety of languages has this word Don, with its roots and ramifications, been used to signify a river, a lake, or cities on the mouths of rivers! *Don, Doncts, Dun, Den, Dan, Danau, Tan, Tane, Ain, An, En,* &c. &c. Thus we have Jor*dan;* *Tan*is, a name of Saïs, on the Nile; *Tan y bwlch*, in Wales; *Dan*ube, *Tham*es; *Ain*, and Coler*ain*, in the north of Ireland; E*den*, in the same country; *Tyne*—and many others.

As we advanced through Celo Chlebnoy, we beheld, at a distance on our right hand, the Don rolling in a very majestic and devious course, while the full moon cast her light upon its waters. We halted for the night at a place called Bestuzevka, almost a solitary hut in the midst of wide plains; and were somewhat struck by the singular manner in which a peasant cautioned us not to sleep there, but proceed another stage. Trifling circumstances of this kind often excite the suspicions of travellers; and in this lonely situation we were puzzled by conjectures whether an attempt was made to lead us into, or out of, a snare: however, it ended, like many such adventures, in nothing.

The next morning, June 7th, we passed very expeditiously through Celo Staroy Ivotinskoy, to the town of Woronetz, situated upon a river of the same name, near the spot where it falls into the Don.

CHAPTER XI.

FROM WORONETZ TO THE TERRITORY OF THE DON COSSACKS.

In the time of Peter the Great, when that monarch came to Woronetz to build his first ship of war, there were scarce a hundred wooden huts in the place. It is now a very handsome town, and its commerce entitles it to considerable distinction. By means of the Don, it possesses an easy intercourse with the Black Sea. Every year, vessels go laden to Tscherkaskoy with corn, and they accomplish their voyage in about two months. In winter they receive merchandise by sledges, from the Crimea and Turkey. Its merchants travel into Siberia for furs, and then carry them even to the fairs of Frankfort. How strange are those journies to an Englishman! The Russian *isvostchick* is seen at Frankfort fair, and the same person may be found in the remotest parts of Siberia. Sometimes they pursue their course even to the coasts opposite England, and buy English hardware, cottons, Japan ware, &c., with which they travel to all parts of Russia.

Woronetz, from its remarkable situation, is particularly qualified to become a great capital. It is placed so as to enjoy the advantages both of warm and cold climates, and holds an intercourse with all parts of the empire. Nature is so bountiful to it in the summer, that plants found in very southern latitudes grow here almost without care. The water melon, so rarely in perfection any where, is as common at Woronetz as the cucumber in England, and flourishes in the open air, with spicey and aromatic herbs. Yet the inhabitants experience very great extremes of temperature, having sometimes, by the thermometer of Reaumur, 30 degrees of cold in the winter, and 28 degrees of heat [95 of Fahrenheit] in the summer. They use the precaution of double casements to their windows, as at Moscow and Petersburg, and have very large stoves in all their apartments. In the *Journal des Savans Voyageurs*, published at Berne in 1792, a commentator attempts to explain the cause of the extraordinary difference observed in the productions of the climate and soil of Woronetz, when compared with those of other countries in the same latitude, by saying, that the nature of the soil neces-

sarily supplies that which the climate would not otherwise afford. The earth is strongly impregnated with nitrate of potass in all the environs of Woronetz, and it is to the presence of this mineral that the extraordinary fertility of the Ukraine has been attributed. The whole country south of Tula abounds with it, insomuch that it sometimes effloresces on the soil, and several fabrics for extracting it have been established. The immediate soil below the town of Woronetz is sand, on a steep mound or bank of which it has been built. It lies in the 54th degree of northern latitude. The vineyards of Europe terminate many degrees nearer to the equator, and yet the vine flourishes at Woronetz. The inhabitants neglect to cultivate it for the purpose of making wine, importing it at great expense from the Don Cossacks, the Greeks, Turks, and people of the Crimea. It frequently happens in France, in the province of Champagne, that the grapes do not attain their maturity, on which account sugar is substituted in the preparation of the Champagne wine.* At Woronetz, where every facility of establishing extensive vineyards has been offered by nature, they have been entirely neglected. Gmelin endeavoured to make them sensible of the importance and advantages which the town might derive from the growth of vines, but hitherto no attention has been paid to them. The delicious wine of the Don Cossacks is found here in great abundance, but it sells at very high prices. They serve it with a plate of ice, a piece of which is put into the glass when the wine is drunk. It is light and pleasant, effervescing like Champagne, but having more the flavour of Burgundy.

Peter the Great endeavoured to establish a botanic garden in the neighbourhood of Woronetz, upon a very grand scale. This we visited, and found a complete wilderness of oaks and other forest trees, the underwood growing so thick under the large trees as to render our passage through it impossible. The garden was expressly appropriated to experiments in the cultivation of useful plants, fruit trees, vegetables, and whatever else might be found likely to answer the purposes of horticulture in such a climate. Notwithstanding all the pains bestowed by that wise monarch upon this institution, it fell into neglect, like many others calculated for the benefit of his people, as soon as his power ceased to enforce the care of it. Gmelin relates, that, in his time, the governor of Woronetz used all possible endeavours to restore this garden to its pristine order. The consequence was, that all sorts of fruit trees, particularly the vine, the chesnut, and the filbert, produced the finest crops. Saffron flourished in abundance, and many plants peculiar to warmer climates. The cherry, the apple, and the pear tree, grew wild in the forests around the town, but the fruit of them, and their better cultivation, was, and is still, entirely neglected by the people. I found two plants very rare in England, flourishing among the weeds of the place; the *campanula patula* (spreading bell-flower), which grows in South Wales, and near Marlborough, and the *ajuga pyramidalis*, or *mountain bugle*. The other plants collected by us in the neighbourhood of Woronetz are given in a note, to avoid the pedantry of crowding the text with words not familiar to every reader.† Stagnant waters, left by the annual inundation of the river, render the place very unwholesome during certain seasons of the year. The inhabitants, both in spring and autumn, are subject to tertian and quartan fevers, which become epidemic, and attack hundreds at a time. The want of proper remedies for such disorders, and the diet of the people, which is then for the most part of very indigestible food, such as salted fish and salted cucumbers, frequently cause the ague to degenerate into a continual fever, a dropsy, or a consumption. Both the Woronetz and the Don supply the inhabitants of all this country with an astonishing quantity of fishes, in the list of which the carp is the most abundant; but they have also tench, sterbet, bream, bleak, trout, lamprey, perch, and pike. The last absolutely swarm in their rivers, and grow to a prodigious size. The flesh is not on that account coarse, yet it is only the poorer class of people who eat it. When nature is profuse in her offerings, the love of novelty induces us to reject, and even to despise, her bounty.

The change of season, as at Moscow, does not take place at Woronetz with that uncertainty which characterises our climate. Winter regularly begins in December, and ends in the middle of March. According to Gmelin, the autumn resembles a moderate summer. Vegetation is so rapid during spring, that on the 9th of June I saw a pear tree which had put forth a strong scion above a yard in length. We found the climate so different from the temperature to which we had been lately accustomed, that we were compelled to alter our clothing altogether. The beams of the sun were intolerable; while a south-east wind, like a sirocco, blew frequently and even tempestuously, causing insufferable heat, during the time we remained here. The only method we had of cooling our apartments was by shutting the windows and drawing curtains over them. Perhaps the sudden transition we had made from colder countries might render us peculiarly sensible of the oppressive heat of the atmosphere.

New buildings were rising in all parts of the town; and the suburbs appeared so extensive, that it was very difficult to form any correct idea of the probable future extent of the place. The town was evidently joining with its suburbs; and we were informed that it would include a village or two besides. It is placed on the very lofty, steep, and sloping elevation I have mentioned, to which nature has given the appearance of a rampart; so that when viewed from the river below, it looks like a prodigious artificial fortification. Doubtless it might be rendered a place of very great strength, as there are no eminences that could command the works on its weakest side. Small lanterns, dispersed about upon posts, serve to light the town. The streets are very wide, without being paved; nor is it probable that so necessary an improvement will speedily take place.

The arsenal erected by Peter the Great still remains, although in a ruinous condition. We visited the little sandy island below the town on which he built his first ship of war, when he projected the conquest of the Black Sea. It is now covered by storehouses, caldrons, and tubs, for the preparation of grease;* which is a great article of trade here, and which they send to England and to America in vast quantities. The principal merchant happening to be upon the spot, he asked me what the English could possibly do with all the grease he sent to their country. The stench from the bones and horns of animals, slaughtered for the purpose of obtaining grease, made the spot absolutely intolerable. It formerly presented a more interesting spectacle, when Peter, at once king and carpenter, superintended his works in this place. He here built himself a little wooden hut and a small church opposite the arsenal, on the side of the river immediately below the town. Then it was, that the greatest monarch in the world, surrounded by a few hovels, in a land of savage people, accustomed only to their rafts and canoes, was seen daily squabbling with his workmen on a little mound of sand, and building a ship of war.

Iron is one of the principal articles of trade in the

* The Champagne wine has been imitated in England with great success, by using gooseberries before they ripen, and supplying the want of the saccharino acid with loaf-sugar. If the process be properly attended to, there is often very little difference. Both are artificial compounds. The common Champagne wine drunk in this country is made with green grapes and sugar. The imitation of it, with green gooseberries and sugar, is full as salutary, and frequently as palatable.

† *Polygonum fagopyrum, Adonis æstivalis, cucubalus behen*, a new species of *euphorbia, salvia nutans, verbascum Phœnicium, Chelidonium minus, ranunculus Illyricus, viola tricolor* (heart's ease).

* [Russian tallow is imported to a great extent in hogsheads into Great Britain, chiefly for the manufacture of candles. It is much inferior to British tallow, with which it is generally mixed in the manufacture. Woronetz, at which so much of this article is prepared for exportation, contains at present 20,000 inhabitants, and is one of the most flourishing towns in the Russian empire.]

town, and occupies the chief business of the shops. They also manufacture large quantities of cloth for the army, and have a building for the preparation of vitriol. Large balls of chalk or lime are piled up before their doors, as in Moscow, Tula, and other places. The cloth factory was established by Peter the Great, and is the most considerable in Russia. Peter resided here in the year 1705; and at the same time he was also engaged in building Petersburg. In the magazines for grease they employ the cattle of the country, and, boiling them down, make two sorts of fat. The first sort is exported to England; the second consumed in Russia, in making soap. Ten pouds of the best sort sell sometimes in Petersburg as high as sixty-three roubles. The carriage from Woronetz to Petersburg costs about eighty copeeks per poud. If they contract with English merchants in Petersburg to the amount of 100,000 roubles, they receive 50,000 in advance, to enable them to buy cattle. This practice of purchasing cattle to boil into grease, has of late years enormously advanced the price of meat. Fourteen years ago, a poud of beef sold in Woronetz for twenty-six copeeks; mutton for thirty; and now the poud of beef costs two roubles, and the poud of mutton sixty copeeks. In return for the corn carried annually to Tscherkaskoy and Azof, they bring back raisins, figs, Greek wines, and the wines of the Don Cossacks. The salt consumed in Woronetz is supplied from a remarkable salt lake in the neighbourhood of Saratof, so impregnated with it, that fine crystals form on any substance placed in the water. Sugar is very dear, and all of it brought from Petersburg. The necessaries of life are, generally speaking, cheap. The carriers of Woronetz go every three years to Tobolsky in Siberia, which is a rendezvous for all caravans bound to Kiatka, on the frontier of China. From Tobolsky they form one immense caravan to Kiatka. Afterwards, returning to Tobolsky, they disperse, according to their several routes. From Siberia they bring furs; from Kiatka, Chinese merchandise of all sorts, as tea, raw and manufactured silk, porcelain, and precious stones. The Chinese, upon their arrival at Kiatka, also furnish them with the productions of Kamschatka, brought from St Peter and St Paul. Thus laden, many of them set out for Frankfort, and bring back muslin, cambric, silks, the porcelain of Saxony, and the manufactures of England.

Four men, with their captain, offered to take us by water to Tscherkaskoy for 250 roubles, including a necessary purchase of boats, anchors, sails, oars, &c. The river is apt to be shallow during summer, and we should have been two months in getting there—the distance is 1500 versts. The best wine of the Don is made upon the river, about 300 versts before arriving at Tscherkaskoy from Woronetz. Fourteen bottles sell there for one rouble and fifty copeeks. They are apt to make it before the grape ripens; and I find this to be the case with all wine which exhibits effervescence. Their white wine is the best when the fruit is suffered to ripen, which very rarely happens.

Approaching the southern part of the empire, the strong characteristics of the Russian people are less frequently observed. Happily for the traveller, in proportion as his distance is increased from that which has been erroneously considered the civilised part of the country, he has less to complain of theft, of fraud, and of dissimulation. In the more northern provinces, he is cautioned to beware of the inhabitants of the Ukraine, and the Cossacks, by an unprincipled race of men, with whom the Cossack and the Tartar are degraded in comparison. The chambers of our inn were immediately over the town jail, and it is quite unnecessary to add of what nation its tenants were composed. The Russian finds it dangerous to travel in the Ukraine, and along the Don, because he is conscious that the inhabitants of these countries know too well with whom they have to deal. The Cossack, when engaged in war, and remote from his native land, is a robber, because plunder is a part of the military discipline in which he has been educated; but when a stranger enters the district in which he resides with his family and connections, and confides his property to their care, no people are found more hospitable, or more honourable. Concerning the inhabitants of the country called *Malo-Russia*, a French gentleman, who had long resided among them, assured me he used neither locks to his doors nor to his coffers; and among the Cossacks, as in Sweden, a trunk may be sent open, for a distance of 500 miles, without risking the loss of any of its contents. Mr Rowan, banker of Moscow, was compelled, by the breaking down of his carriage, to abandon it in the midst of the territory of the Don Cossacks, and it was afterwards brought safe to him at Taganrock, with all its appurtenances and contents, by the unsolicited and disinterested labour of that people. Who would venture to leave a carriage, or even a trunk, although encased, doubly locked, and directed, among the Russians?

From the time we left Tula, a remarkable change was visible in the features of the people, which I was unable to explain. The peasants had frequently the straight yellow hair of the inhabitants of Finland, and the same light complexion; neither resembling Russians, Poles, nor Cossacks. At Woronetz the gipsy tribe was very prevalent; and a mixed race, resulting from their intermarriage with Russians.

The horrid practice of burying persons alive often takes place in Russia, from the ignorance of the inhabitants. Suspended animation, occasioned by the vapour of their stoves, or accidents of drowning, are always considered lost cases, and the unhappy sufferer is immediately committed to the grave, without any attempt towards recovery. They send only for a police officer, to note down the circumstances of the disaster, and, without the smallest effort towards restoring respiration, proceed with the ceremony of interment.

A poor woman in bathing, during our stay at Woronetz, got out of her depth. She struggled some time with the stream, and, being carried by it about 300 yards, was taken out by some peasants before she had either sunk or lost her power of motion. When laid on the earth, she groaned and moved; but the water which had been swallowed rendered her face black, and she became apparently lifeless. She was, therefore, immediately pronounced to be really dead. No endeavour on our part, accompanied by persuasion and by offers of money, could induce the spectators to touch the body, or suffer any remedy to be attempted for her recovery. They seemed afraid to approach what they considered as a corpse. In vain we explained to them the process by which persons, so circumstanced, are restored to life in England. They stood at a distance, crossing themselves, and shaking their heads; and in this manner the poor woman was left upon the shore, until it would have been too late to have made use of any means for her recovery. If she was not afterwards buried alive, her death was certainly owing to a shameful and obstinate neglect of remedies, which, in her case, promised every prospect of success. The police officer gave in his memorial, and her body was committed to the grave.

We left Woronetz on the 12th of June; crossing the river at the bottom of the town, and entering plains as before. The swamps which are below Woronetz at once explain the cause of the annual fevers to which its inhabitants are liable, and must exhale, during warm seasons, as unwholesome vapours as those which rise from the fens of Italy.

There are few finer prospects than that of Woronetz, viewed a few versts from the town, on the road to Paulovskoy. Throughout the whole of this country are seen, dispersed over immense plains, mounds of earth covered with a fine turf; the sepulchres of the ancient world, common to almost every habitable country. If there exist any thing of former times, which may afford monuments of antediluvian manners, it is this mode of burial. They seem to mark the progress of population in the first ages after the dispersion—rising wherever the posterity of Noah came. Whether under the form of a Mound in Scandinavia and Russia; a Barrow in England; a Cairn in Wales, Scotland, and Ireland; or of those heaps which the modern Greeks and Turks call *Tepe;* or, lastly, in the more artificial shape of a

Pyramid in Egypt—they had universally the same origin. They present the simplest and sublimest monument which any generation could raise over the bodies of their progenitors; calculated for almost endless duration, and speaking a language more impressive than the most studied epitaph upon Parian marble. When beheld in a distant evening horizon, skirted by the rays of the setting sun, and, as it were, touching the clouds which hover over them, imagination pictures the spirits of heroes of remoter periods descending to irradiate a warrior's grave. Some of them rose in such regular forms, with so simple and yet so artificial a shape, in a plain otherwise perfectly flat and level, that no doubt whatever could be entertained concerning them. Others, still more ancient, have at last sunk into the earth, and left a hollow place, encircled by a kind of fosse, which still marks their pristine situation. Again, others, by the passage of the plough annually upon their surface, have been considerably diminished. I know no appearance of antiquity more interesting than these *tumuli*.

We met frequent caravans of the Malo-Russians, who differ altogether from the inhabitants of the rest of Russia. Their features are those of the Polonese, or Cossacks. They are a much more noble race, and stouter and better looking people than the Russians, and superior to them in every thing that can exalt one set of men above another. They are cleaner, more industrious, more honest, more generous, more polite, more courageous, more hospitable, more truly pious, and of course less superstitious. Their language only differs from the Russian as the dialect of the meridianal provinces of France does from the dialect spoken near Paris. They have in many instances converted the desolate steppe into fields of corn. Their caravans are drawn by oxen, which proceed about thirty versts in a day. Towards evening, they halt in the middle of a plain, near some pool of water, when their little waggons are all drawn up in a circle, and their cattle are suffered to graze around; while the drivers, stretched out upon the smooth turf, take their repose, or enjoy their pipe, after the toil and heat of the day. If they meet a carriage, they all take off their caps, and bow. The meanest Russians bow to each other, but never to a stranger.

South of Woronetz we found the country perfectly level, and the roads (if a fine turf lawn may be so denominated) the finest, at this season, in the whole world. The turf upon which we travelled was smooth and firm, without a stone or pebble, or even the mark of wheels, and we experienced little or no dust. Nothing could be more delightful than this part of our journey. The whole of these immense plains were enamelled with the greatest variety of flowers imaginable. The list of plants* we collected is much too numerous for the text. The earth seemed covered with the richest and most beautiful blossoms, fragrant, aromatic, and, in many instances, entirely new to the eye of a British traveller. Even during the heat of the day, refreshing breezes wafted a thousand odours, and all the air was perfumed. The skylark was in full song; and various insects, with painted wings, either filled the air, or were seen couched in the blossoms. Advancing nearer to the Don, turtle-doves, as tame as domestic pigeons, flew about our carriage. The pools were filled with wild-fowl; and dogs, like those of the Abruzzo mountains, guarded the numerous herds and flocks which were passing or grazing. Melons of different sorts flourished in the cultivated though open grounds near the villages, covering several acres of land.

At Celo Usmani we were employed collecting plants. Some were entirely new to our eyes. Others, I believe, are found in England; particularly the *echium rubrum*, falsely called *Italicum* by Gmelin, which began to flourish about this place, and was afterwards very common. It grows chiefly among corn. The women of the Don, he says, use it as a colour for their cheeks; as the root, when fresh, yields a beautiful vermilion tint. The peasants also extract a gum from it. Gmelin recommended its transplantation, and the application of its colouring properties, to objects of more importance. We observed also the *spiræa filipendula*, which is found on the hills near Cambridge, and some varieties of the *centaurea;* also the *onosma echioïdes*, *Veronica Austriaca*, *pedicularis tuberosa*, and *salvia pratensis*. It is from the root of the *onosma*, as we were informed, that the Tartar women obtain their *rouge*.

Usmani is entirely inhabited by Russians; and whenever that is the case, towards the south of the empire, a village resembles nothing more than a number of stacks of straw or dried weeds. The female peasants were seated on the turf before their huts, spinning. Their machines are not quite so simple as those used in many parts of Italy. They consisted of wooden combs, placed on a stick driven into the ground, to contain the flax, and not rising higher than the knee; while the left hand managed the spindle. The person at work was therefore compelled to sit during the employment. This manner of living afforded a striking contrast to the government that oppresses them; for we observed an air of liberty in these wild and wide plains, which ill agreed with the reflections we had before made on the general condition of the peasants. The severity of the winter here is hardly reconcileable with the appearance of a country abounding in plants which are found in warm climates. Yet the snow annually affords a sledge road the whole way from the Gulf of Finland to the Sea of Azof.

From Celo Usmani we travelled over similar fine plains to Podulok Moscovskoy, where we passed the night in a wretched village, whose miserable inhabitants were not even able to strike a light. Nothing could be more revolting than the sight of the hovels in which they lived, open to all the inclemencies of the weather, and destitute of every comfort and common convenience of life. They were said to be settlers from Tver.

The next morning, June 13, we passed the village of Mojocks, and came to Ekortzy, where we halted to take some refreshment under a pent-house, upon the back of a kibitki; the heat of the sun being almost insupportable. The people were kind; and a coarse meal, on that account, became agreeable. We began to perceive that the farther we advanced from the common hordes of the Russians, the more politeness and hospitality we should experience; exactly the reverse of that which we had been taught to expect by the inhabitants of Moscow. The deserts, as they had described them, instead of proving bare and sandy wastes, presented verdant lawns, covered with herbage, though sometimes dry and scorched by the rays of a very powerful sun.

Near Ekortzy we added the *verbascum Phœnicium* to our herbary; and between Ekortzy and Iestakovo, on a high, bleak, chalky soil, we found the rarest plants which occurred during our whole route; *draba Alpina*, and *polygala sibirica*. Professor Pallas could hardly credit the evidence of his senses when he afterwards saw them among our collection in the Crimea. Near the same spot we also observed that beautiful plant, the *clematis integrifolia*, exhibiting colours of blue and gold; with others, which, being less remarkable, are given in the subjoined note.*

The first regular establishment of Malo-Russians which we saw, occurred after leaving Iestakovo. It was called Locova Sloboda. The houses were all white-washed, like many of the cottages in Wales; and this operation is performed annually, with great care. Such distinguishing cleanliness appeared within them, that a traveller might fancy himself transported, in the course of a few miles, from Russia to Holland. Their apartments, even the ceilings and the beams in the roof, are

* *Androsace septentrionalis*, *centaurea myriocephala*, *stipa pennata*, *cerastium*, *lithrum virgatum*, *asclepias vincetoxicum*, *Delphinium ajacis* (larkspur), *vicia Pannonica*. Also the following, well known in England:—*Salvia pratensis* (meadow clary), *gnaphalium dioicum*, *geranium sylvaticum* (wood-crane's bill), *geum urbanum*, *myosotis scorpioïdes* (mouse-ear scorpion grass), *cucubalus otites* (grows on Newmarket Heath), *sisymbrium amphibium* (along the banks of the Cam), *erysimum barbaria* (yellow rocket, bitter winter grass).

* Other varieties of *verbascum*—*alyssum incanum*, and *montanum*; *sideritis montana*; varieties of *genista*, and *vicia cassubica*.

regularly washed. Their tables and benches shine with washing and rubbing, and reminded us of the interior of cottages in Norway. Their courtyard, stables, and out-houses, with every thing belonging to them, bespoke industry and neatness. In their little kitchens, instead of the darkness and smoky hue of the Russians, even the mouths of their stoves were white. Their utensils and domestic vessels were all bright and well polished. They kept poultry, and had plenty of cattle. Their little gardens were filled with fruit-trees, which gave an English character to their houses—the third nation with whose dwellings I have compared the cottages of Malo-Russia; that is to say, having a Welsh exterior, a Norwegian interior, and the gardens and out-houses of the English peasantry. They had neat floors; and although the roof was thatched, its interior was wainscoted. There was nowhere any appearance of dirt or vermin.

The inhabitants, in their features, resemble Cossacks, and both these people bear a similitude to the Poles; being, doubtless, all derived from one common stock. The dress of unmarried women is much the same among the Malo-Russians and the Don Cossacks. They both wear a *kilt*, or petticoat, of one piece of cloth fastened round the waist. Sometimes, particularly among more aged females, this petticoat consists of two pieces, like two aprons, fastened on before and behind. The necks of the girls are laden with large red beads, falling in several rows over the breast. The fingers, both of men and women, bear rings, with glass gems, &c. On the forehead of the females, if they wear any thing, is a simple bandeau, or gilded cap; and from behind hang rows of antique coins, or false pieces sold to them for that purpose, which imitate the ancient coin of their own and of other countries. The hair of unmarried women hangs in a long braid down the back, terminated by a ribbon with a knot. Their language is pleasing, and full of diminutives. But the resemblance which these people bear, in certain circumstances of dress and manners, to the Scottish Highlanders, is very remarkable. The cloth petticoat, before mentioned, is chequered like the Scotch plaid, and answers to the *kilt* worn in certain parts of Scotland, even at this day. They have also, among their musical instruments, the bagpipe and the Jew's harp; the former of which, like those used in North Britain and in Finland, is common to the Cossacks as well as the Malo-Russians. Another point of resemblance may be found in the love of spirituous liquors. The Malo-Russians are truly a merry race, and much given to drinking; but this habit prevails among all barbarous nations.

From hence we proceeded to Paulovskoy, situated upon a high sandy bank, on the eastern side of the Don. It is a small town, and at a distance makes a pleasing appearance, but consists of little more than a church, and a few wooden houses remote from each other; yet, being built in straight rows, their situation gives the appearance of streets to the wide roads which run between them. The river here, broad and rapid, makes a noble appearance; and barges, laden with corn, were seen moving with its current towards the Sea of Azof. Close to its waters we found a variety of beautiful plants. The *stipa pennata*, celebrated in Russian songs, waved its feathery locks, as in almost all the steppes. In the branches of the *Artemisia campestris*, insects had caused excrescences, which the Tartar nations use to light their pipes. The climbing birthwort (*aristolochia clematitis*), a rare British plant, though found at Whittlesford in Cambridgeshire, and at Stanton in Suffolk, appeared among southernwood, the woody night-shade, the water crow-foot, and the flea-bane. The rest were all strangers.* On the eastern banks are extensive low woods, hardly rising above the head, which are so filled with nightingales, that their songs are heard, even in the town, during the whole night. There is, moreover, a sort of toad, or frog, which the Empress Elizabeth caused to be brought to the marshes near Moscow. Its croaking is loud and deep-toned, and may almost be termed musical; filling the air with full hollow sounds, very like the cry of the old English harrier. They are not known in the north of Europe. Their noise is in general so great as to be heard for miles, joining with, and sometimes overpowering, the sweeter melody of nightingales. This circumstance gives quite a new character to the evening and the night. Poets in Russia cannot speak of the silence and solemnity of the midnight hour; it is a loud and busy clamour, totally in contradiction to the opening of Gray's Elegy, and the First Night of Young.

Peter the First founded Paulovskoy, and named it in honour of St Paul. It was designed as a frontier town against the Tartars and Turks. At that time the territory of the former extended to Bachmut, on the southern side of the Donetz; and that of the Turks to the place where now stands the fortress of Dimitri, upon the Don. Its founder had here a botanic garden, as at Woronetz; but not a trace remains. The underwood about the place, which in Gmelin's time was a forest, and which is daily diminishing, contains, as well as the steppes around, bears, wolves, foxes, martens, hares, weasels, ermines, and squirrels. Among the birds, not common elsewhere, may be mentioned the pelican, vast flights of which arrive annually from the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof, accompanied by swans, cranes, storks, and geese. They alight at the mouths of the Don, and proceed up the river; and in autumn they return by the same route. The pelicans construct their nests of rushes, and line the interior with moss, or any soft herb. These nests are found only upon the small islets of the river, and places where moss may be procured. They lay two white eggs, about the size of those of the swan, and employ the same time in hatching. If disturbed while sitting, they hide their eggs in the water, and take them out afterwards with their bill, when they believe the danger removed. They live altogether upon fish, and consume a prodigious quantity. The Russian naturalists give a curious account of this bird's mode of fishing, with the assistance of the cormorant. The pelican extends its wings, and troubles the water; while the cormorant, diving to the bottom, drives the fish to the surface; and the pelican, continuing the motion of its wings, advances towards the shore, where the fish are taken among the shallows. Afterwards, the cormorant, without further ceremony, helps himself out of the pelican's beak.

The principal trade here carried on is in grease and fruit; which latter article, particularly the water melon, is carried to Moscow and Petersburg. They plant it in the open fields, where it covers whole acres of land. In the steppes near the town, I observed about thirty women hoeing a piece of unenclosed ground for the culture of this delicious vegetable. That a plant, which is hardly in perfection any where, should thrive upon the rivers in this part of Russia, and in such a latitude, is very remarkable. Perhaps its flavour does not depend upon latitude. At Naples, although so highly extolled, they seldom ripen. In Egypt they are even worse. Indeed, the only place where I have seen the water melon attain its full colour, size, and maturity, is at Jaffa, on the coast of Syria.

We found ourselves among Russians at Paulovskoy, and narrowly escaped with our lives. Fortunately, the alarm their conduct might have excited, for the safety of our future journey, was unheeded. Sleeping in the carriage, I was awakened by some person gently opening the door, and could perceive, though it was somewhat dark, a man extending his arm in a menacing manner. I believed him to be a Russian, sustaining his national characteristic by a valedictory theft, as our time of remaining among them was now drawing to a close. But I was afterwards informed, and, indeed, the man's conduct seemed to prove it, that his design was to assassinate. Hoping to seize him by the hair, I made a sudden effort, but, eluding my grasp, he escaped; and although the alarm was immediately given, he could not then be discovered. Soon after, putting my head out of the carriage to call the servant, a large stone, thrown with great violence, struck the frame of the

* *Campanula sibirica, dracocephalum ruyschiana, onosma simplicissima, anthemis tinctoria.*

window, close to my head, sounding so like the report of a pistol that at first I believed a pistol had been discharged close to me. Upon this a second search was made, and a man in consequence detected, pretending to sleep in one of the kibitkis in the courtyard of the inn. This fellow, whether guilty or not, we compelled to mount the barouche-box, and to sit there as sentinel, while I made a third attempt to obtain a little repose. Suddenly my companion, who was in the house, came running into the yard, followed by the servant and all the family, to tell me that the front of the inn was assailed by some persons without, who had poured a shower of stones through the windows, and broken every pane of glass. Determined to sell our lives as dearly as possible, we drew our sabres, and marched together towards the residence of the governor, a very worthy man, who instantly rose from his bed, and instituted an inquiry, which continued the whole of the night. At the same time, soldiers were stationed with the carriage, and the patrole doubled. Towards morning they brought in a young man, whom they stated to have detected in the act of making his escape from the outhouses of our inn; and it was during his examination that the cause of all this disorder was made known. He proved to be a lover of one of the girls of the house; and as she had refused to come out when he sent for her, his jealousy had persuaded him that he was slighted on our account. In a fit of desperate fury, he had therefore resolved to wreak his vengeance upon some of the party, if not upon all; in which undertaking he had been aided by some of his comrades. The poor fellow was more an object of pity than resentment, and we began to intercede for his pardon; but the governor insisted upon making an example of him, and they led him away sulky, and, as it seemed, nothing loth, to be flogged. As he went, he still vowed revenge, declaring that he was not alone in the business, for that fifteen of his confederates had made an oath to be revenged, not only upon the girl, but upon all her family, for her inconstancy to him.

The governor provided us with a powerful escort, and early in the morning we continued our journey. The roads have been all changed, since Gmelin, and other travellers, visited this part of Russia. We proceeded from Paulovskoy to Kazinskoy Chutor, a village inhabited by Malo-Russians and Russians mingled together. The distinction between the two people might be made without the smallest inquiry, from the striking contrast between filth and cleanliness. In the stable of the post-house we found about twenty horses, kept with a degree of order and neatness which would have done credit to any nobleman's stud in Britain. The house of the poor superintendant villager was equally admirable; every thing appeared clean and decent; there was no litter, nor was any thing out of its place. It was quite a new thing to us, to hesitate whether we should clean our boots before walking into an apartment, on the floor of which I would rather have dined than on the table of any Russian prince.

The village is situated in the most wild and open steppes, among the short herbage of which we noticed the land-tortoise. Its flesh is esteemed a great delicacy, as it is in the Archipelago, and in all Turkish cities. Boat-loads of them are carried from the Greek Isles to the markets of Constantinople. After leaving Kazinskoy, we passed through several very large villages, scattered over vallies, each of which appeared to consist rather of several hamlets than of one, and arrived at Nizney Momon. Nothing worth observation occurred, except the plants we collected.* The heat was intense—the country like that before described. We found our vinegar, which had been recommended to us at Moscow, to be a pleasing and salutary ingredient in bad water, and a most delicious solace, when exposed to the scorching rays of the sun, with parched lips, and mouths full of dust. It was impossible to resist the temptation of drinking it without any admixture of water; and to the practice of doing so may be attributed, perhaps, the weak state of health into which I afterwards fell. We considered it, at this time, the most valuable part of our baggage, and afterwards, in Kuban Tartary, derived from it the only means of sustaining the fatigue and languor caused by the heat of the climate and bad air.

The next place we came to was Dobrinka; and here, for the first time, we found an establishment of Cossacks, although but few appeared, and even these mixed with Malo-Russians. The church was new, a large and handsome white building, erected by the Emperor Paul. Others of the same nature appeared in most of the neighbouring villages. That of Dobrinka makes a conspicuous appearance several miles before the traveller reaches it. If happiness could be found under the Russian government, it might be said to dwell in Dobrinka—a peaceable and pleasant spot, full of neat little white cottages, tenanted by a healthy, and apparently contented, society. They live in the greatest tranquillity, removed from all the spies, tax-gatherers, police-officers, and other despots of the country. We were received into one of the courtyards, which they all have before their houses, with a hearty welcome and smiling countenances, very different from the lowering brows, and contracted suspicious eyes, to which we had been so often accustomed. At sunset, all the cows belonging to the inhabitants came, in one large troop, lowing into the village. No driver was necessary; for, as the herd entered, they separated into parties, and retired of their own accord to their respective owners, in order to be milked. The Malo-Russians, with their numerous families, were seated on the ground in circles before their neat little habitations, eating their supper; and, being all happy and merry together, offered a picture of contentment and peace not often found within Russian territories.*

About two in the afternoon of the next day, having been detained for want of horses at Metscha, we arrived at Kasankaia, one of the largest *stanitzas* of the Don Cossacks, and the first within their territory. As I am now entering upon the description of a very interesting part of our journey, I shall be particularly careful to note whatever observations may occur. They relate to a country very little visited, and, on that account, very little known; where every thing is interesting, because every thing presents what has not been seen before. The independent mode of life of the people, their indolence at home, their activity in war, their remote situation with regard to the rest of Europe, the rank they hold in the great scale of society, all require consideration.

CHAPTER XII.

TERRITORY OF THE DON COSSACKS.

There is something extremely martial, and even intimidating, in the first appearance of a Cossack. His dignified and majestic look; his elevated brows and dark mustachoes; his tall helmet of black wool, terminated by a crimson sack, with its plume, laced festoon, and white cockade; his upright posture; the ease and elegance of his gait—give him an air of great importance. We found them in considerable number at Kasankaia, lounging before their houses, and conversing in such large parties, that it seemed as if we were entering their capital. Their dresses were much richer than any thing we had seen in Russia, although all were uniform. Each person's habit consisted of a blue jacket, edged with gold, and lined with silk, fastened by hooks across the chest. Beneath the jacket appeared a silk waistcoat, the lower part of which was concealed by the sash. Large and long trousers, either of the same material as the jacket, or of white dimity, kept remarkably clean, were fastened high above the waist, and covered their boots. The sabre is not worn except on horseback,

* Of these, some are known in our country; namely, the *tragopogon pratense*, or *goat's-beard*, and *potentilla argentea*. Those more rare are, the *gladiolus imbricatus*, which is not found even in our botanic gardens; *astragalus*, *onobrychis*, *hesperis*, *matronalis*, and *campanula sibirica*. We observed also a new species of *lychnis*.

* We observed here a plant which grows on the hills near Cambridge, the *hedysarum onobrychis*.

on a journey, or in war. In its place is substituted a switch or cane, with an ivory head, which every Cossack bears in his hand, as an appendage of his dress; being at all times prepared to mount his horse at a moment's notice. Their cap or helmet is the most beautiful part of the costume, because it is becoming to every set of features. It adds considerably to their height; and gives, with the addition of whiskers, a military air to the most insignificant figure. They wear their hair short round the head, but not thin upon the crown. It is generally dark, thick, and quite straight. The cap is covered by a very soft and shining black wool. Some of them have civil and military distinctions of habit—wearing in time of peace, instead of the jacket, a long frock without buttons. The sash is sometimes yellow, green, or red, though generally black; and they wear large military gloves. There is no nation in the world more neat with regard to dress; and, whether young or old, it seems to become them all. A quiet life seems quite unsuited to their disposition. They loiter about, having no employment to interest them; and, passionately fond of war, seem distressed by the indolence of peace.*

The ataman, or chief of the stanitza, approached us with very great respect and complaisance, as soon as we arrived. Notice at the same time was given to all the inhabitants not to quit the town without his knowledge, until every thing the travellers might require was ascertained and provided. He begged to conduct us to *quarters*, as he expressed it; and brought us for that purpose to his own house, which he gave up entirely to our use. It was pleasantly situated above the Don, with an open covered arcade, or wooden gallery, in which we breakfasted and dined, while we staid. His cave of provisions was in the courtyard; and he made his wife and daughters open it for our use. I had the curiosity to descend into this place. It was floored with ice, upon which I observed sterlet, and other fishes of the Don, with game, and other luxuries. The house was perfectly clean and comfortable, so much so, that we could not resist the pressing invitation made to us of remaining a short time, to study the manners of the Cossacks, in a town nearly as large as their capital.

It was amusing to observe the temporary respect they paid the ataman. If he convened any of the inhabitants on business, however trivial, they made their obeisance before him, standing bare-headed, as in the presence of a sovereign; but the moment the assembly was dissolved, he passed unheeded among them, receiving no other mark of respect than any of the other Cossacks. It is an office to which the election is annual; but if an ataman is particularly popular, he may retain his station, by re-election, during many years. I believe this does not often happen. Our host was in his first year, and his predecessors had been generally changed when the time arrived. We soon perceived that the Cossacks were a people characterised by great liveliness and animation; little disposed to industrious occupation, but fond of amusement, and violent if their passions are roused. In their dances, drinking songs, and discussions, they betray great vehemence. They have abundance of excellent food, and as much brandy as they may think proper to drink. It is therefore surprising that order is so well maintained in their stanitzas.

However indisposed a traveller may be to listen to those false alarms which the inhabitants of every country raise in the minds of strangers who wish to explore any remote part of their territory, it is not possible at all times to disregard such relations, especially when they come from persons of the highest authority, and who pretend to accurate knowledge of the facts they pretend to substantiate. In Russia, there was not an individual of any respectability with whom we conversed upon the subject of our journey, who did not endeavour to dissuade us from the danger of traversing what they termed "*the deserts of the Don Cossacks.*" It ended, as such accounts generally do, in misrepresentation and absurdity. Among the Russians, indeed, we were constantly exposed to danger, either from imposition which it was hazardous to detect, or from insult it was fearful to resent; and in both cases the consequences affected our security. The very earliest view of the Cossacks showed us a brave, generous, and hospitable people. If we questioned them concerning the dangers of the country, we were referred to districts tenanted by wandering Calmucks; yet we afterwards found no cause of reasonable alarm, even in the very camps of that singular race of men. At Paulovskoy, they told us the emperor's courier had been stopped with the mail. We doubted the fact in the first instance; and then concluded, that if the mail had been really stolen, the theft was committed by the Russians, who raised the clamour, and not by the Cossacks, to whom the robbery had been imputed. In war, the Russians found them a desperate and dangerous enemy; and many a bitter remembrance of chastisement and defeat induces them to vilify a people whom they fear. The Cossacks are justified in acting towards the Russians as they have uniformly done; that is to say, in withdrawing as much as possible from all communion with a race of men, whose association might corrupt, but could never advance, the interests of their society. After these remarks, it must nevertheless be confessed, that we were compelled to take an escort with us throughout the Cossack territory, and to place a guard over our carriage at night; precautions, doubtless, often calculated to excite the ridicule of the people among whom we travelled; yet even the Cossacks themselves urged their necessity, "*on account,*" they said, "*of the Calmucks.*"

One evil consequence, which arises from attention paid to tales of danger, is the habit it occasions of putting false representations even on the most harmless and trivial incidents. The first night of our residence among the Cossacks we were full of idle fancies. The ataman was intoxicated, and, accompanied by his wife, set off into the country, leaving us in possession of his house. As we had heard a violent altercation without doors, and saw the ataman in a corner of the court, frequently whispering to other Cossacks, and pointing to our carriage, the effect of the silly stories we had heard began to operate, and we imagined some preparation was making to rob us; for which purpose it was necessary to get rid of the ataman and his wife, as they might otherwise be made responsible for our safety. The apprehension of our servants did not diminish the suspicion thus excited; and we concluded the plot more probable, as we knew they had never before seen an equipage so attended. Since this happened, I have every reason to believe that the good old ataman was only giving directions for our advantage, and, like all intoxicated persons, was making an important concern of the most trifling business, such as cording and re-

* "The territory of the Don Cossacks, which is almost entirely pasture land, is divided into *stanitzas*, or cantons (for many stanitzas now contain more than a single village). To each of these a certain portion of land and fishing is allotted by government, and an annual allowance of corn from Voronetz and the northern provinces, according to the returned number of Cossacks. They are free from all taxes, even those on salt and distilleries. The distribution of land to individuals in each stanitza is settled by the inhabitants and their ataman. From the ataman an appeal may be made to the chancery at Circask. The allotment of land, and the fishery which each Cossack possesses, may be lot out by him to farm, and often is so; and it is a frequent abuse to insert the names of children in the return of Cossacks, to entitle them to seniority in becoming officers. Formerly, the ataman himself marched at the head of his stanitza, now he merely sends the required contingent, which is put under officers named by the crown. The Cossack, in consequence of his allowance, may be summoned to serve for any term, not exceeding three years, in any part of the world; mounted, armed, and clothed, at his own expense, and supplying any deficiency which may occur. Food, pay, and camp equipage, are furnished by government. Those who have served three years are not liable, or at least are not usually called upon, to serve abroad, except during particular emergencies. They are employed, however, in the *cordon* along the Caucasus, and in the duties of the post and police. After twenty years' service, they become free from all employment, except the home duties of police, and assisting the passage of the corn barges over the shallows of the Don. After twenty-five years they are entirely free."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

pairing our wheels, and a few other commissions we wished to have executed. How easy is it for travellers, so circumstanced, to raise an alarm about nothing; make a great stir to defend themselves against ideal danger; offend those who intended good instead of evil; and finish, by congratulating themselves upon an escape, when there was not the slightest reason for an apprehension!

We received a visit, on the evening of our arrival, from the ataman of one of the neighbouring stanitzas, who chanced to be in the place. He represented the voyage down the Don to Tscherchaskoy as very pleasant, but tedious; and that it would require at least a month for its performance. The mosquitoes also are very troublesome upon the water; and the voyage is liable to impediments, from the frequent shallows of the river.

Below the town, which stands on the western bank of the Don, we beheld the river, augmented to a most magnificent piece of water, rolling in a full and copious tide, and marking its progress through a sterile country by clumps of trees and flowers, and an abundant vegetation, which always hangs about its sloping sides; but all beyond is bare and desolate. I bathed frequently, and found the current very rapid. The fine sterlets caught here were often brought to regale us during our stay. I preserved one of them tolerably well, but they have been often engraved; and were this not the case, a young sturgeon will give a very good idea of their appearance. A fine large fish is also taken in this river, like the bream in shape, but quite equal to the sterlet in flavour. We had one served up which weighed half a poud (eighteen pounds).

The women of this place are very beautiful. The shops are supplied with several articles of luxury which we did not expect to find; such as loaf-sugar, ribbands, costly silks, and other wares of large towns. But by much the most numerous articles were sabres. The Cossacks call this weapon *sabla*, the Poles and Malo-Russians, *sabel*. We found the bagpipe frequently in use. The puppets common in Calabria, and carried by the inhabitants of that part of Italy over all Europe, were much in vogue here. These consist of two small figures suspended by a string, one end of which a piper fastens to his knee or to one of his fingers, while the other end is held by a gimlet screwed into a table or floor; and by the motion of the knee, the figures are made to move in time. The Calabrians manage them with great dexterity, and often collect a crowd in the streets of London and Paris. We saw also the Cossack dance, which much resembles the dance of the gipsies in Russia, and our English hornpipe. Like every other national dance, it is licentious. As the female recedes or approaches, the male dancer expresses his desire or his disappointment; yet so adapted is the figure of the dance to the small rooms in which such exercise is chiefly carried on, that the performers hardly stir from one spot. The whole expression is by movements of the body, especially of the arms and head, accompanied by short and sudden shrieks, and by whistling. The method they exhibited of moving the head from one shoulder to the other, while the hands are held up near the ears, is common to the dances of all the Tartars, Chinese, and even the inhabitants of the isles in the Pacific Ocean.

In the evening of June 16, we left this hospitable stanitza, crossing the Don on a raft. The people of the house in which we had been so comfortably lodged, positively refused to accept payment for all the trouble we had given them. No entreaty could prevail upon any one of them to allow us further satisfaction, by any remuneration. "Cossacks," said they, "do not sell their hospitality."

The view of Kasankaia, from the southern side of the river, is very fine. Its large church, with numerous domes, stands in the centre. To the right and left, extend neat and numerous wooden houses. The Don flows below; which forms a fine front, with the busy raft, constantly employed in conveying the caravans across the ferry. In all parts of the river above Kasankaia, it seems to flow over a bed of chalk; and its banks, gently swelling upwards from the water, rise like the South Downs of Sussex, often disclosing the chalk of which they consist. Farther down, and near the water's edge, low copses of wood almost always accompany its course; but they diminish as it draws nearer to Tscherchaskoy, the inhabitants of which town derive all their wood from the Volga.

As soon as we left Kasankaia, we entered the steppes in good earnest, with a view to traverse their whole extent to Tscherchaskoy. These are not cultivated; yet, bleak and desolate as their appearance during winter must be, they have in summer the aspect of a wild continued meadow. The herbage rises as high as the knee, full of flowers, and exhibiting a most interesting collection of plants. No one collects or cuts this herbage. The soil, though neglected, is very fine. We passed some oaks, in the first part of our journey, which had the largest leaves I ever saw. Our Cossack escort galloped before us with their long lances, and were of great use in clearing the road of caravans, and in tracing the best track over which a carriage might expeditiously pass. We were pleased in surveying our little army, all going full speed; but thought it would avail us little, if the stories we had heard of banditti in the steppes had really been true. For ourselves, we were totally unarmed, with the exception of our sabres; and these were under lock and key in the sword-case. We relied therefore solely on our Cossacks, who seemed quite delighted with any thing that promised even the hope of a skirmish, and, proud of their employment, scoured the plains, armed with pistols, sabres, and lances twelve feet in length.

Thus escorted and accoutred, we proceeded thirty versts before evening, and passed the night in a spot full of swamps, stinking fens, and muddy pools, near whose stagnant waters a number of caravans had also halted. The mosquitoes were in great number, and very troublesome. Our Cossacks slept the whole night on the damp ground, and in the open air, almost naked, around our carriage. The atmosphere of such a country must in summer be pestilential. It resembled the Pontine Marshes in Italy; being full of reeds, bulrushes, and tall flags, in which was heard the constant clamour of frogs and toads, whose croaking overpowered every other sound during the night. But in the morning, the chorus of a great variety of birds, with the humming of innumerable insects, and the pleasing appearance of a flowery wilderness, gave a liveliness to the flat and wide prospect, which made the desert very interesting; and we renewed our journey. The name of this place was called Tichaia; and thereabouts the river Lazovai has its source. We followed its tardy and almost stagnant waters through the steppes, to a place named from it, Verchnia Lazovaia. On its banks I collected the *sinapis nigra* and *convolvulus arvensis*, or common bindweed, well known in England.

We afterwards observed a camp of Calmucks, not far from the track we pursued, lying off in the plain to the right. As we much wished to visit that singular people, it was thought prudent to send a part of our Cossack escort before, in order to apprise them of our inclination, and to ask their permission. The sight of our carriage, and of the party that was approaching with it, seemed to throw them into great confusion. We observed them running backwards and forwards from one tent to another, and moving several of their goods. As we drew near on foot, about half a dozen gigantic figures came towards us, stark naked, except a cloth bound round the waist, with greasy, shining, and almost black skins, and black hair braided in a long queue behind. They began talking very fast, in so loud a tone, and so uncouth a language, that we were a little intimidated. I shook hands with the foremost, which seemed to pacify them, and we were invited to a large tent. Near its entrance hung a quantity of horse-flesh, with the limbs of dogs, cats, marmots, rats, &c., drying in the sun, and quite black. Within the tent we found some women, though it was difficult to distinguish the sexes, so horrid and inhuman was their appearance. Two of

them, covered with grease, were lousing each other; and it surprised us that they did not discontinue their work, or even look up, as we entered. Through a grated lattice, in the side of the tent, we saw some younger women peeping, of more handsome features, but truly Calmuck, with long black hair hanging in thick braids on each side of the face, and fastened at the end with bits of lead or tin. In their ears they wore shells, and large pearls, of a very irregular shape, or some substance much resembling pearl. The old women were eating raw horse-flesh, tearing it off from large bones which they held in their hands. Others, squatted on the ground, in their tents, were smoking, with pipes not two inches in length, much after the manner of Laplanders. In other respects, the two people, although both of eastern origin, and both nomade tribes, bear little resemblance. The manner of living among the Calmucks is much superior to that of the Laplanders. The tents of the former are better constructed, stronger, more spacious, and contain many of the luxuries of life; such as very warm and very good beds, handsome carpets and mats, domestic utensils, and materials of art and science, painting, and writing.* The Calmuck is a giant, the Laplander a dwarf; both are filthy in their persons, but the Calmuck more so than perhaps any other nation. I am not otherwise authorised in comparing together tribes so remote from all connection with each other, than by asserting, from my own observation, that both are oriental, characterised by some habits and appearances in common, deferring at the same time all further illustration of the subject until a more appropriate opportunity. I shall have occasion to speak at large of the Laplanders in another part of my travels.

Every body has heard of the *koumiss*, and the brandy, which Calmucks are said to distil from the milk of mares. The manner of preparing these liquors has been differently related, and perhaps is not always the same. They assured us that the brandy was merely distilled from butter-milk. The milk which they collect over night is churned in the morning into butter; and the butter-milk is distilled over a fire made with the dung of their cattle, particularly the dromedary, which makes a steady and clear fire, like peat. But other accounts have been given both of the koumiss and the brandy. It has been usual to confound them, and to consider the koumiss as their appellation for the brandy so obtained. By every information I could gain, not only here, but in many other camps which we afterwards visited, they are different modifications of the same thing, although different liquors; the koumiss being a kind of sour milk, like that so much used by the Laplanders, called *pina*, and which has undergone, in a certain degree, the vinous fermentation; and the brandy, an ardent spirit obtained from koumiss by distillation. In making the koumiss, they sometimes employ the milk of cows, but never, if mare's milk can be had, as the koumiss from the latter yields three times as much brandy as that made from cow's milk. The manner of preparing the koumiss, is by combining one-sixth part of warm water with any given quantity of warm mare's milk. To this they further add, as a leaven, a little old koumiss, and agitate the mass till fermentation ensues. To produce the vinous fermentation, artificial heat and more agitation is sometimes necessary. This affords what is called koumiss. A subsequent process of distillation afterwards obtains an ardent spirit from the koumiss. They gave us this last beverage in a wooden bowl, calling it *vina*. In their own language it bears the very remarkable appellation of *rack* and *racky*, doubtless nearly allied to the names of our East India spirit, *rack* and *arrack*. We brought away a quart bottle of it, and considered it very weak bad brandy, not unlike the common spirit distilled by the Swedes and other northern nations. Some of their women were busy making it in an adjoining tent. The simplicity of the operation, and of their machinery, was very characteristic of the antiquity of this chemical process. Their still was constructed of mud, or very coarse clay, and for the neck of the retort they employed a cane. The receiver of the still was entirely covered by a coating of wet clay. The brandy had already passed over. The woman who had the management of the distillery wishing to give us a taste of the spirit, thrust a stick, with a small tuft of camel's hair at its end, through the external covering of clay; and thus collecting a small quantity of the brandy, she drew out the stick, dropped a portion upon the retort, and, waving the instrument above her head, scattered the remaining liquor in the air. I asked the meaning of this ceremony, and was answered, that it is a religious custom, to give always the first drop of the brandy which they draw from the receiver to their god. The stick was then plunged into the receiver a second time; when more brandy adhering to the camel's hair, she squeezed it into the palm of her dirty and greasy hand, and, having tasted the liquor, presented it to our lips.

The covering of their tents consists of neat and well made mats, such as we see brought from India, and also felt, or coarse woollen cloths. Whenever a Calmuck marries, he must build one of these tents, and one for every child he has by that marriage. If a husband dies, his widow becomes the property of his brother, if the latter chooses to accept of her. The distinction between married and unmarried women is in their hair. A married woman wears her hair braided, and falling over her shoulders, on each side of her face, but a virgin has only a single braid hanging down the middle of her back. Their tents were all of a circular form, near which we observed a party of their children, from the age of five to fourteen, playing at the Russian game before mentioned, with knuckle-bones. We delighted them by making a scramble with a few copecks. They were quite naked, and with skins perfectly black. Farther off, a herd of their dromedaries were grazing.

Of all the inhabitants of the Russian empire, the Calmucks are the most distinguished by peculiarity of feature and manners. In their personal appearance, they are athletic, and very forbidding. Their hair is coarse and black, their language harsh and guttural. They inhabit Thibet, Bucharia, and the countries lying to the north of Persia, India, and China, but, from their vagrant habits, they may be found in all the southern parts of Russia, even to the banks of the Dnieper. The Cossacks alone esteem them, and intermarry with them.* This union sometimes produces women of very great beauty, although nothing is more hideous than a Calmuck. High, prominent, and broad cheek-bones; very little eyes, widely separated from each other; a flat and broad nose; coarse, greasy, jet black hair; scarce any eye-brows, and enormous prominent ears, compose no very inviting portrait.

Their women are uncommonly hardy, and on horseback outstrip their male companions in the race. The stories related of their placing pieces of horse-flesh under the saddle, in order to prepare them for food, are perfectly true. They acknowledged that it was a common practice among them on a journey, and that a steak so dressed became tender and palatable. In their large camps they have always cutlers, and other artificers in copper, brass, and iron; sometimes goldsmiths, who make trinkets for their women, idols of gold and silver, and vessels for their altars; also persons expert at inlaid work, enamelling, and many arts which we vainly imagine peculiar to nations in a state of refinement.

* These tents are of a circular form, with a hole at the top: they are constructed of canes, and covered with a thick felt made of camel's hair. In the Calmuck language they are called *khabitka*.

* In opposition to this remark, I find it stated in Mr Heber's Journal, that "Calmuck servants are greatly esteemed all over Russia for their intelligence and fidelity;" and I recollect seeing some of them in that capacity among English families in Petersburg. The most remarkable instance ever known of an expatriated Calmuck, was that of an artist employed by the Earl of Elgin, whom I saw (a second Anacharsis, from the plains of Scythia) executing most beautiful designs among the ruins of Athens. Some Russian family had previously sent him to finish his studies in Rome, where he acquired the highest perfection in design. He had the peculiar features, and many of the manners, of the nomade Calmucks.

One very remarkable fact, and which I should hesitate in asserting if I had not found it confirmed by the observations of other travellers, is, that from time immemorial the oriental tribes of Calmucks have possessed the art of making gunpowder. They boil the efflorescence of nitrate of potass in a strong lye of poplar and birch-ashes, and leave it to crystallise; after which they pound the crystals with two parts of sulphur, and as much charcoal; then, wetting the mixture, they place it in a caldron over a charcoal fire, until the powder begins to granulate. The generality of Calmucks, when equipped for war, protect the head by a helmet of steel, with a gilded crest, to which is fixed a net-work of iron rings, falling over the neck and shoulders, and hanging as low as the eye-brows in front. They wear upon their body, after the eastern manner, a tissue of similar work, formed of iron or steel rings matted together, which adapts itself to the shape, and yields readily to all positions of the body, and ought therefore rather to be called a shirt than a coat of mail. The most beautiful of these are manufactured in Persia, and are valued as equivalent to fifty horses. The cheaper sort are made of scales of tin, and sell only for six or eight horses each; but these are more common among the Chinese, and in the Mogul territory. Their other arms are lances, bows and arrows, poignards, and sabres. The richest only bear fire-arms, which are therefore always regarded as a mark of distinction, and kept with the utmost care, in cases made of badgers' skins. Their most valuable bows are made of the wild goat's horn, or whalebone; the ordinary sort of maple, or thin slips of elm or fir, fastened together, and bound with a covering of linden or birch bark.

Their amusements are, hunting, wrestling, archery, and horse-racing. They are not addicted to drunkenness; though they hold drinking parties, which continue for half a day at a time, without interruption. Upon such occasions, every one brings his share of brandy and koumiss; and the whole stock is placed upon the ground, in the open air, the guests forming a circle, seated around it. One of them, squatted by the vessels which contain the liquor, performs the office of cup-bearer. The young women place themselves by the men, and begin songs of love or war, of fabulous adventure, or heroic achievement. Thus the *fête* is kept up, the guests passing the cup round, and singing the whole time, until the stock of liquor is expended. During all this ceremony, no one is seen to rise from the party, nor does any one interrupt the harmony of the assembly by riot or intoxication. In the long nights of winter, the young people of both sexes amuse themselves with music, dancing, and singing. Their most common musical instrument is the balalaika, or two-stringed lute, which is often represented in their paintings. These paintings preserve very interesting memorials of the ancient superstition of eastern nations; inasmuch as they present us with objects of Pagan worship common to the earliest mythology of Egypt and of Greece. The arts of painting and music may be supposed to have continued little liable to alteration among them, from the remotest periods of their history. As for their dances, they consist more in movements of the hands and the arms, than of the feet. In winter they also play at cards, draughts, backgammon, and chess. Their love of gambling is so great, that they will spend entire nights at play, and lose in a single sitting the whole of what they possess, even to the clothes on their body. In fact, it may be said of Calmucks, that the greatest part of their life is spent in amusement. Wretched and revolting as their appearance is to more civilised people, they would be indeed miserable, in their own estimation, if compelled to change their mode of living for ours. Both Gmelin and Pallas relate, that they deem a residence in houses so insupportable, that to be shut up in the confined air of a close apartment, when under the necessity of going into towns, and making visits of embassy or commerce, was considered by them with a degree of horror. Among the diseases to which they are exposed by their diet and want of cleanliness, may be mentioned the itch, to which they are very subject, and malignant fevers, which are very fatal to them during the heat of summer. The venereal disease causes great ravages; but it is said to prevail chiefly in those camps where their princes reside, and not to be often found among the lower orders. They give to this disorder a name very expressive of the estimation in which they hold their mode of life, signifying "the house disease."* Having occasion hereafter to notice this people again, I shall only add the observations of one of the celebrated travellers before mentioned, who, after considering the privations to which they are exposed, places their situation in a point of view more favourable, perhaps, than I have done. "For the rest," says he, "to whatever degree of wretchedness the poorest of the Calmucks may be reduced, it is very rare to behold them dejected by sorrow, and they are never subdued by despair. The generality, notwithstanding a mode of life which appears so adverse to health, attain to a robust and very advanced old age. Their disorders are neither very frequent nor very dangerous. Few become grey-headed at forty or fifty. Persons from eighty to a hundred years of age are by no means uncommon among them; and at that advanced period of life they still sustain with great ease the fatigue of horsemanship. A simple and uniform diet;† the free air which they uninterruptedly respire; inured, vigorous, and healthy bodies; continual exercise, without care, without laborious employment; such are the natural causes of these felicitous effects."

Leaving this encampment, we continued traversing the steppes in a south-westerly direction, and passed a very neat village belonging to a rich Greek, who, to our great surprise, had established a residence in the midst of these desolate plains. As we advanced, we perceived that wherever rivers intersect the steppes, there are villages, and plenty of inhabitants. A manuscript map at Tscherchaskoy confirmed the truth of this observation. No maps have been hitherto published in Europe which give an accurate notion of the country. A stranger crossing the Cossack territory, might suppose himself in a desert, and yet be in the midst of villages. The road, it is true, does not often disclose them; but frequently when we were crossing a river, and believed ourselves in the midst of the most uninhabited country, which might be compared to a boundless meadow, we beheld villages to the right and left of us, concealed, by the depth of the banks of the river,‡ below the level of the plain; not a single house or church of which would have been otherwise discerned. We were approaching, in an oblique direction, the Lazovai, now augmented to a considerable river. As we drew near, its opposite banks rose considerably higher than the usual appearance of the country, with fine clusters and patches of trees. Before we arrived at Acenovskaia, it was even mountainous. On its western side we saw a neat village, called Jernvchaia, pleasingly situated beneath the hills, with a new and handsome church. Indeed, the churches are every where good, and much superior to what we find in our country villages in England, both as to architecture and interior decoration. At the top of the mountainous elevation on the western side of the river, stood one of the largest of those tumuli of which I have before spoken, and which abound all over this country. They become more numerous, and increase in size, nearer to the Don and the Sea of Azof. Finding the water clear and the current rapid, I took the op-

* Or rather, "derived from those who live in houses."

† I am at a loss to reconcile this statement with the real diet of the Calmucks. Can that properly be deemed *simple*, which consists of the grossest animal food of all kinds, without admixture of vegetable diet, bread, or any of the fruits of the earth?

‡ "Erected, or rather concealed," says Gibbon, accurately describing the dwellings of their forefathers, "in the depth of forests, on the banks of rivers, or the edge of morasses, we may, not perhaps without flattery, compare them to the architecture of the beaver; which they resembled in a double issue, to the land and water, for the escape of the savage inhabitant, an animal less cleanly, less diligent, and less social, than that marvellous quadruped."—*History of the Roman Empire*, chap. xlii.

portunity of bathing; and recommend the practice to all travellers, as essential to the preservation of health.

From Acenovskaia, we continued our route over steppes apparently destitute of any habitation. Dromedaries were feeding, as if sole tenants of these wide pastures. Mr Cripps got upon the back of one of them, as the animal was kneeling; which immediately rose, and, with a very majestic pace, bore him towards the carriage. Our horses were so terrified at the sight, that they broke the ropes, and we had great difficulty in tranquillising them. The dromedary, having passed, made off into the plain, with his head erect, prepared, no doubt, to undertake an expedition to very distant regions; when my friend, having satisfied his curiosity, let himself down from his lofty back, as from the roof of a house, and fell with some violence on the ground, leaving the dromedary to prosecute his voluntary journey which he continued as far as our eyes could follow him.

Innumerable inhabitants of a smaller race people these immense plains. Among the number of them, is an animal which the natives call *suroke*—the marmot of the Alps. I have seen Savoyards at Paris leading them about for show. They grow here to the size of a large badger, and so much resemble the bear in their manner and appearance, that, until we became acquainted with the true history of the suroke, we considered it as a nondescript animal, and called it *ursa minima subterranea*. Such mistakes are not uncommon in zoology. Naturalists frequently add to the nomenclature of animals by superfluous appellations. A beautiful little quadruped, called *jerboa* in Egypt, has been described in other countries as a distinct animal, under the various names of *mus jaculus*, *subterraneous hare*, *vaulting-rat*, *leaper*, &c. &c.; but it is the same creature every where, and bears to the kangaroo the degree of relationship which a lizard has to the crocodile. I shall describe it more minutely hereafter. Our present business is with the suroke, which is seen in all parts of the steppes, sitting erect, near its burrow, on the slightest alarm whistling very loud, and observing all around. It makes such extensive subterraneous chambers, that the ground is perforated in all directions, and the land destroyed wherever the animal is found. Its colour is a greyish brown; it has five fingers upon each of its paws, which very much resemble human hands, and are used after the same manner. The mouth, teeth, and head, are like those of the squirrel; but the ears are shorter. Its fine eyes are round, full, dark, and bright; the tail is short; the belly generally protuberant, and very large. It devours whatever it finds with the greatest voracity, and remains in a state of torpor half the time of its existence. Many of the peasants keep these creatures tame in their houses. We purchased no less than four, which lived and travelled with us in our carriage, and gave us an opportunity to study their natural history. They were always playing, or sleeping beneath our feet, to the great annoyance of our little pug dog,* who felt much insulted by the liberties they took with him. The peasants universally gave them the name of *waski*. They assured me they always lost them in the month of September, and that they did not make their re-appearance until the beginning of April. They either descended into a burrow, or concealed themselves in some place where they might remain least liable to observation, and there slept during the whole winter. To awaken them during that season, materially injures their health, and sometimes kills them. They are most destructive animals, for they will gnaw every thing which falls in their way; as shoes, books, wooden planks, and all kinds of roots, fruit, or vegetables. They made sad havoc with the lining of our carriage, which was of leather. As soon as they have done eating, they become so somnolent as even to fall asleep in your hands, in any posture or situation, or under any circumstances of jolting, noise, or motion. While awake they are very active, and surpass every other animal in the quickness with which they will bury themselves in the earth. They resemble guinea-pigs in making a grunting noise; and whenever surprised, or much pleased, or in any degree frightened, they utter loud and short squeaks, which have the tone of a person whistling.

Other animals common in the steppes are wolves and bears; also a quadruped called *biroke*, of a grey colour, something like a wolf, very ferocious, and daring enough to attack a man. The Cossack peasants, armed with their lances, sally forth, on horseback, to the chase of this animal. It has a long full tail, which it drags on the ground. From the accounts given of it by the peasants, I suspected it to be the same animal described by Professor Pallas, as found in the environs of Astrachan, under the appellation *chakal*, and which is said to be between a wolf and a dog; but whether it answers to the jackal of Egypt or not, I did not learn.

The most numerous of all the quadrupeds of the steppes, the whole way from Woronetz to Tscherchaskoy, are the *suslics;* by which name they are called throughout the country. As you draw near the Don, they absolutely swarm, and may be taken in any number. This interesting little animal is supposed to be the *mus citillus* of Buffon; but the description of it will prove whether this be really the case or not. We procured several, one of which we stuffed, but it has not been properly preserved; and therefore I prefer making reference to the notes taken on the spot, rather than to any thing connected with its present appearance. It makes a whistling noise, like the suroke, but is much smaller, not being larger than a small weazel. It constructs its habitation under ground with incredible quickness, excavating, first of all, a small cylindrical hole or well, perpendicularly, to the depth of three feet; thence, like a correct miner, it shoots out a level, although rather in an ascending direction, to prevent being incommoded by water. At the extremity of this little gallery it forms a very spacious chamber, to which, as to a granary, it brings, every morning and evening, all it can collect of favourite herbage of corn, if it can be found, of roots, and other food. Nothing is more amusing than to observe its habits. If any one approaches, it is seen sitting, at the entrance to its little dwelling, erect, upon its hind feet, like the suroke, carefully noticing whatever is going on around it. In the beginning of winter, previous to retiring for the season, it carefully closes up the entrance to its subterraneous abode with sand, in order to keep out the snow, as nothing annoys it so much as water, which is all the Calmucks and Cossacks make use of in taking them—for the instant that water is poured into their burrows, they run out, and are easily caught. The Calmucks are very fond of them; but I believe they are rarely eaten by the Cossacks. Their greatest enemy is the falcon, who makes a constant breakfast and supper of suslics. They have from two to ten young ones at a time; and it is supposed, from the hoard prepared, that the suslic does not sleep, like the suroke, during winter. All the upper part of its body is of a deep yellow, spotted with white. Its neck is beautifully white, the breast yellowish, and the belly a mixed colour of yellow and grey; it has, moreover, a black forehead, reddish white temples, and

* Having mentioned this little animal, it may be well to say something of the importance of its presence with us, for the advantage of other travellers. The precaution was first recommended to us by a Polish traveller in Denmark. Any small dog (the more diminutive the better, because the more portable, and generally the more petulant) will prove a valuable guardian, in countries where the traveller is liable to attacks from midnight robbers, and especially from pirates by water, as in the Archipelago. They generally sleep during the day, and sound their shrill alarum, upon the most distant approach of danger, during the night. I recollect an instance of one, who enabled a party of mariners to steer clear of some shallows, by barking at a buoy, which in the darkness of the night they had not perceived. The instances in which our little dog was useful, it is needless to relate. But it may gratify curiosity to be informed, that, naturally afraid of water, and always averse from entering it, he crossed all the rivers and lakes of Lapland, Sweden, and Norway, after his masters; accompanied them, during three years, in different climates, yet detesting bodily exercise; and ultimately performed a journey on foot, keeping up with horses, from Athens, through all Greece, Macedonia, and Thrace; making the tour of the Archipelago, to Constantinople; and thence, in the same manner, through Bulgaria, and Wallachia, to Bucharest.

a white chin. The rest of its head is of an ash-coloured yellow, and the ears are remarkably small. Among the feathered tribe in the steppes, we noticed, particularly in this part of our journey, birds called *staritchi*, or *the elders*, which are seen in flocks, and held by the people in superstitious veneration. They are about the size of a snipe, with a very elegant form, a brown colour, and white breast.

Such are the observations we made during the second day of our journey across the steppes. We halted at a place called Suchovskaia, and proceeded afterwards to Rossochinskaia, a single hut in the middle of the waste. Yet such are often the villages, not to say towns and cities, which figure in Russian maps. This place consisted of a single dwelling, built of a few pieces of wood, and thatched by weeds and sedge, carelessly heaped upon it. The surrounding hovels are outhouses for the post-horses. During summer, its Cossack inhabitants sleep upon the roof among the thatch.

As it grew dark, a tremendous thunder-storm came on, and a very interesting spectacle was disclosed by the vivid flashes of lightning which accompanied it. The Cossack guard, as well as the people of the place, had collected themselves upon different parts of the thatched covering of the hut and hovels about it, to pass the night. Every flash of lightning served to exhibit their martial figures, standing upright in groups upon the roof of the buildings, bowing their heads and crossing themselves, beneath the awful canopy which the sky then presented. All around was desolate and silent. Perhaps no association could serve to render a scene of devotion more striking. It is customary among Cossacks, before they consign themselves to sleep, to make the sign of the cross, facing respectively the four quarters of the globe. A similar superstition, respecting four cardinal points of worship, exists among ignorant people, even in our own country. I remember, when a child, being taught by an old woman to offer the following singular prayer:—

> Four corners to my bed,
> Four angels over head:
> Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John,
> Bless the bed which I lie on.

A party of Cossacks arrived as pilgrims, returning homewards from the war in Italy. We afterwards met numbers who had traversed on foot the whole of the immense territory from the Alps to the Don, and who arrived with scarcely a rag to their backs. They were loud in complaints against their unprincipled commanders. Some of them had learned a little Italian. They said that the Russian officers stripped them of every thing they had, turned them adrift upon the frontier of Italy, and told them to find their way home on foot. One of them assured me he had begged during the whole journey; and that before he had set out from the army, they had taken away his watch, and even his clothes. We gave them a little brandy; and the poor people of the hut brought them a little broth, made with fish and wild herbs. They sat round it in a circle, eating all out of one bowl, and, having ended their supper, began to sing. So relative is human happiness!

We left Rossochinskaia on the 18th of June. All the Cossack inhabitants of the steppes, from Kasankaia to Tscherchaskoy, have light brown hair, and are a different race from the genuine Cossacks of the capital, and those dwelling in stanitzas along the Don. Lieutenant-colonel Papof, a Cossack officer of the highest merit and talent, of whom I shall hereafter speak, told me that the people of the steppes were emigrants, of recent date, from Poland.

It would be tedious to notice upon every occasion the extraordinary number of tumuli, which appear during the whole route. I wish the reader only to keep in mind the curious fact of their being everywhere in view. Close to the post-house at Pichovskaia, the first place at which we halted this day, were two of a very remarkable size; one on each side of the road. The horses here were without shoes, and the road as excellent as it is possible to imagine. It seemed as though we were driving over a continued lawn. Yet stories of danger were renewed; the lances of our Cossack escort were twelve feet in length; and an unusual degree of caution prevailed among them, as to their means of defence. They provided themselves with fire-arms, which they said it was now necessary to have in due order; and a very sharp look-out was made, the Calmucks increasing in number as we advanced more into the interior.

We arrived at Kamenskaia, a stanitza upon the Danaetz, generally written Donetz; which river we crossed on a floating bridge, as the post-house was on the opposite side. This town made a great figure, as we descended the valley in which it was situated, owing to its fine church, and the numerous gardens with which it abounded. The river itself, also, with a broad stream winding among the trees, had a noble appearance. We saw in the streets the same sort of gingerbread for sale which is common to our English fairs, and made in the same forms. The ataman was at his country-seat; and we were told that all the principal Cossacks had their houses of summer residence in the country. Just before entering the town, a young Calmuck woman passed us, astride on horseback, laden with raw horse-flesh, which hung like carrion before her on each side. She was grinning for joy at the treasure she had obtained, which we afterwards found to be really carrion. A dead horse lying in the ditch which surrounds the town, on the land side, had attracted about thirteen dogs, whom we found greedily devouring what remained; the Calmuck having contested the prize with them just before, and helped herself to as much of the mangled carcase as she could carry away. The postmaster kept a tame suroke, as large as a common terrier, perfectly domesticated. This animal, he told us, only remained with him one half of the year; that it constantly retired for the other to a hole in the ground, near the house, and there buried itself. Upon the approach of spring, it regularly returned to its patron, resumed its former habits, sitting upright, and begging for bread and herbs as before. It would always come to him during the summer, when called by the name of *waski;* but all the bawling he could use, at the mouth of its burrow, never drew it forth in the winter season.

Higher up the Danaetz, where it receives the Lugan, are the Lugan iron-works and cannon foundry, belonging to the crown; which, at the time we travelled in the Cossack territory, were under the direction of a Mr Gascoigne, a British outlaw, formerly superintendant of the Carron works in Scotland, whose improvements he betrayed to the Russian government, and was accordingly rewarded. From thence the emperor's artillery passes by water to the Black Sea. Mr Gascoigne found very excellent coal at Lugan; in consequence of which discovery, as well as its convenient situation for water carriage, the foundry was there established.

The remarkable appellation of the river at Kamenskaia has perhaps already excited the reader's notice. In our maps it is written Donnez; and in those of Germany, Donetz. I paid the greatest attention to the pronunciation of the people living on different parts of the river, and particularly of those Cossack officers throughout the country, who, by their education, were at all capable of determining with accuracy the mode of orthography which would best express the manner in which the word is spoken, and always found it to be Danaetz, although frequently pronounced as if a T was before the D—Tdanaetz, or Tanaets.

We traversed continued steppes, from Kamenskaia. Camps of Calmucks were often stationed near the road. We paid visits to several of them, but obtained little information worth adding to what I have before stated of this people. In one of them, containing not more than four tents, we found only women, who were busy in distilling brandy from milk. The men were all absent, and perhaps upon some predatory excursion. The women confirmed what we had been before told concerning the material used for distilling; and said, that having made butter, they were distilling the butter-milk for brandy. We could not credit that brandy might be so obtained; but to prove it, they tapped the still, as upon a former occasion, offering us a tuft of camel's

hair soaked in brandy, that we might taste and be convinced. During the latter part of this day's journey, we observed great numbers of dromedaries grazing. We halted for horses at Dubovskaia. Immense caravans were passing towards the Ukraine. The very sight of their burden is sufficient to prove of what prodigious importance it would be to increase the cultivation of the steppes, where nature only asks to be invited, in order to pour forth her choicest treasures. We observed trains of from sixty to a hundred waggons, laden entirely with dried fish, to feed the inhabitants of the south of Russia, who might be supplied with better food from the land than from the rivers of the Cossacks.

We went on to Grivinskaia, and there passed the night; having travelled sixty-eight miles this day, notwithstanding the delays which curiosity had occasioned. On the morning of June the 19th, we came to Tschestibaloshnia, meeting frequent parties of Calmucks; and through Tuslovskaia, to the town of Oxai upon the Don, a settlement belonging to the Cossacks of Tscherchaskoy. As we drew nearer to the river, the steppes were entirely alive with swarms of the beautiful little quadruped before described under the name of suslic, some of which were entirely white. Approaching Oxai, numerous camps of Calmucks appeared in every direction, over all the country round the town. Some of their tents were pitched close to the place. Others, more distant, covered the lofty eminences above the Don.

CHAPTER XIII.

CAPITAL OF THE DON COSSACKS.

The postmaster of Tuslovskaia met us as we drew near to Oxai. He had, without our knowledge, passed us upon the road, and given very absurd notice to the inhabitants that a great general from England was upon the road to the town. A party of Cossack cavalry, armed with very long lances, came out to meet us, and, joining our escort, took their station in the van. The postmaster, with his drawn sabre, rode bareheaded by the carriage side, and in this conspicuous manner we made our entry. As the annual inundation of the Don had laid the streets of Tscherchaskoy under water, its chancery had been removed to this place, and almost all the principal families were in Oxai. We found the inhabitants waiting our arrival, and the Cossack officers drawn out to witness it. The ataman of Oxai came to us immediately; and we took care to undeceive him with regard to our supposed generalship. It seemed to make no alteration, either in the respect paid to us, or the welcome they were disposed to give. Every possible attention and politeness were manifested. We expressed an inclination to proceed as far as Tscherchaskoy that evening. The ataman observed, the day was far advanced; that the current of the Don, swollen by the inundation, was extremely rapid and turbulent; and that he could not undertake to be responsible for our safety, if we persisted in our determination. He had already provided excellent quarters, in a spacious and clean apartment, with numerous windows, a balcony commanding a view of the Don, and every protection that a host of saints, virgins, and bishops, whose pictures covered the walls, could afford us. Their general was at his country-seat, ten miles from the town.* An express was therefore sent to him for his instructions concerning our future reception. In the meantime, sentinels were stationed at our carriage, and an officer, with Cossack soldiers, paraded constantly before our door. During the whole time we remained in their country, the same honours were paid to us; and though we frequently remonstrated against the confinement thus occasioned to the young officers, we never went out without finding the sentinels in waiting, and the officer at his post. The ataman came frequently to offer his services; and the constant endeavour of the people seemed to be, who could show us the greatest degree of kindness. Hearing me complain of the inaccuracy of the Russian maps, they brought from their chancery, without any of those degrading suspicions which had so often insulted us, their own accurate surveys of the country, and allowed me free access at all times to their most authentic documents. The secretaries of the chancery were ultimately ordered by their general to copy for me a survey of the whole territory bordering on the Don and the Sea of Azof. That I was instigated to accept it by any other motive than the desire of adding to the public stock of geographical science, there is no necessity to prove. The procurator* employed by the Russian government, however, thought otherwise—it being a maxim in the policy of that country, that "to enlighten, is to betray." This liberal intention of the hospitable Cossacks was therefore thwarted, although no menace of the Russian police now prevents me from making an acknowledgment, which would equally have been offered if I had been enabled to communicate such interesting and valuable information to the geographers of Europe. It is some consolation that I was allowed to delineate even the different channels of the Don, at its *embouchure*. For the rest, it may be said, the course of the Don itself is not accurately given in our best maps; and of the other rivers which fall into it, not even the names are mentioned. Those steppes described as so desolate, which appear like a vast geographical blank in every atlas, are filled with inhabitants. Stanitzas are stationed everywhere along the numerous rivers which traverse them, although the common route, by not following the course of any of these rivers, affords no knowledge of the number of the people. They contain 100 stanitzas, or settlements, and 200,000 Cossack inhabitants.† Of this number, 35,000 are in arms. There are also, in the territory of the Don Cossacks, 30,000 Calmucks, and of these 5000 bear arms, as persons who are ready at all times for actual service. These last are not permitted to leave the country, although it is extraordinary how persons of their vagrant inclination and habits can be restrained. I have said before that the Cossacks are attached to the Calmucks, and even intermarry with them; but a Calmuck can never be taught to endure domestic life. If compelled to live within walls, he would die of the spleen, and betrays evident alarm if there is any prospect of his being shut up in a house.

I had never beheld an acre of Asiatic territory. The flat and dreary marshes, on the opposite side of the Don, afforded for once, therefore, a very interesting prospect. From our balcony we had a noble view of the Don, which appeared broad and rapid, extending to these marshes ‡ and at a distance, towards the east, we beheld Tscherchaskoy, with its numerous spires, rising, as it were, out of the water. On the European side we observed a neighbouring stanitza of considerable magnitude, stationed, like Oxai, upon a lofty eminence above

* "Most of the richer Cossacks have houses in Circask (Tscherchaskoy), which they make their metropolis, but pass the greater part of their time in their farms, on the northern bank of the river. Platof, the ataman, said he kept there two hundred brood mares. He had, however, no land in tillage, though he possessed a vineyard a little to the east of Axy (Oxai). Of the wine produced from these vineyards, they vaunted greatly. The best always struck me as mixed with Greek wine, or raisins. The ordinary wines are very poor, and tasteless. Spirits are very cheap, and much drunk. Platof himself took a glass of brandy, with a spoonful of salt in it, as if brandy was hardly strong enough."—Heber's *MS. Journal.*

* "The *procureur* (procurator) is a kind of controller, or visitor, appointed to watch over the execution of the laws, to examine the decision of courts of justice, visit the prisons, attend executions, &c. He is generally a native of a different province from that wherein he is stationed. At Circask, *he is always a Russian*, at least not a Cossack."—Heber's *MS. Journal.*

† For a further account of their population, see the note extracted from Mr Heber's MS. Journal, in a subsequent page, which contains much valuable information. [The present population of the country of the Don Cossacks is estimated at nearly 300,000. It forms one of the governments of Russia, and contains 2976 geographical square miles.]

‡ [Dr Lyall states in his Travels (vol. II. p. 194), that the Don at Aksai (as he spells the town) is ten miles broad in the spring. The same author remarks that the streets of Aksai are very irregular, but that there are several excellent brick houses in them. He visited this part of Russia in 1822.]

the river. The name Oxai is a corruption of the Tartar word Axai, which signifies *white water*. The Don, in this part of its course, exhibits two colours. On the side of Oxai it is white, because of the shallows. A similar and very curious appearance may be observed from the castle at Coblentz in Germany, where the Moselle falls into the Rhine; and for some distance after the junction of the two rivers, they are seen flowing parallel to each other, with a distinct and different colour peculiar to the water of each. In the shallows of the Don, a sort of flag, the *typha palustris*, flourishes most luxuriantly. We found the inhabitants of Oxai, and afterwards of Tscherchaskoy, devouring this plant raw, with a degree of avidity as though it had been a religious observance. It was to be seen in all the streets, and in every house, bound into faggots, about three feet in length, as we tie up asparagus, which were hawked about or sold in the shops. The season for eating it had just commenced. They peel off the outer rind, and find near the root a tender white part of the stem, which, for about the length of eighteen inches, affords a crisp, cooling, and very pleasant article of food. I have not noticed this sort of vegetable diet in any other country. We ate of it heartily, and were as fond of it as the Cossacks, with whom, young or old, rich or poor, it is a most favourite repast. The taste is somewhat insipid; but in hot climates, so cool and pleasant a vegetable would be every where esteemed. The Cossack officers, however, who had been in other countries, assured us that they found this plant fit for food only in the marshes of the Don.

The morning after our arrival, the general, who is commander-in-chief over all the district, including the town of Tscherchaskoy, the metropolis, came to Oxai. The day was celebrated as a festival, in honour of the recovery of one of the emperor's children from the small-pox inoculation. He sent us an invitation to dinner; and in the forenoon we accompanied him, with all the officers of his staff, to a public ceremony in the church. On entering this building, we were much surprised by its internal magnificence. The screen of the altar was of green and gold; and before it was suspended a very large chandelier, filled with tapers of green wax. The screen, like the rest of the church, was covered with pictures, some of which were tolerably well executed, and all of them very curious, from their singularity, and the extraordinary figures they served to represent. Here were no seats, as in other Russian churches. The general placed himself against a wall on the right hand facing the sacristy, standing on a step covered with a carpet, and raised about four inches from the level of the floor. We were directed to place ourselves on his right hand. The rest of the Cossacks, whether in their military uniform or national domestic habits, stood promiscuously in the body of the church. The priest, in very rich robes, with his back to the people, was elevated on a kind of throne, placed beneath the chandelier, and raised three steps from the platform, facing the great doors of the sacristy, which were shut. Over these doors was a picture of the Virgin; and before it hung, suspended by a string, two wooden angels, joined back to back, like the figures of Janus, with candles in their hands. Whenever the doors of the sacristy were thrown open, the wooden angels were lowered down into the middle of the entrance, where they swung round and round in a most ludicrous manner.

As the ceremony began, the priest, standing on the throne, loosened a girdle, bound across his breast and shoulders, on which was an embroidered representation of the cross. This he held between his fore-finger and thumb, repeating the service aloud, and touching his forehead with it, while the people sang responses, and were busy crossing themselves. The vocal part of the ceremony was very solemn; and the clear shrill notes of children placed among the choristers, which, rising to the dome of the church, seemed to swell and ultimately die away in the air, had a most pleasing and sublime effect. It is the same in almost all the Russian churches; and I know not any thing to which I can more justly compare it, than the sounds produced by an Æolian harp. The words they use are Russian, and every where the same—"*Lord have mercy upon us!*" We did not find them altered even among the Cossacks; it was still "*Ghospodi pomilui!*" but trilled

> In notes with many a winding bout
> Of linked sweetness long drawn out.

At last there was an interval of silence: after which, other voices, uttering solemn airs, were heard within the sacristy. The doors were then thrown open, and a priest, bearing on his head a silver chalice, containing the consecrated bread covered with a white napkin, made his appearance. He was preceded by others, who advanced with censers, scattering incense over the doors of the sacristy, the pictures, the priests, the general, the officers, and the people. After some other ceremonies, the bread was distributed among the congregation; and those who came out of the sacristy having retired, its doors were again closed, and prayers were read for all the royal family; their names being enumerated in a tone of voice and manner exactly like that of a corporal or serjeant at a roll-call. Passages were also read from the Psalms; but the method of reading, in all the Russian churches, is ridiculous beyond description. The young priests who officiate, pique themselves upon a talent of mouthing it over with all possible celerity, so as to be altogether unintelligible, even to the Russians; striving to give a whole lesson the appearance of a single word of numberless syllables. Some notion may be formed of their delivery, by hearing the criers in our courts of justice administer the oath to a jury.

The dinner given by the general after this ceremony served to show, that among Cossacks, as elsewhere, religious abstinence by no means implies any privation as to eating and drinking. We were told to expect meagre diet, and found the table covered with all sorts of fish, with tureens of sterlet soup, with the rich wines of the Don, and copious goblets of delicious hydromel, or mead, flavoured by juices of different fruit. I took this opportunity to request the general's permission to open one of the tumuli in the neighbourhood. It was granted, and an order was given for thirty of the Cossack soldiers to assist me in the labour; but afterwards, when I had assembled my workmen, an alarm was spread, and speedily increased, by the observations of an ignorant physician, that by this means the plague might be communicated to the people, in consequence of which I was forced to abandon the undertaking. Several of the Cossacks, nevertheless, assured me that they had formerly opened several, and they affirmed that they had found in them the bones of men and of horses. Sometimes, they said (which, if true, would be indeed remarkable), gun-barrels were found in these tombs, exhibiting very ancient workmanship. A Cossack officer showed me a very extraordinary weapon of this nature, which he declared had been discovered in one of the mounds in the steppes. Notwithstanding all that may be urged concerning the knowledge which the Chinese and oriental hordes had of gunpowder prior to its use in Europe, I rather suspect such weapons were derived from the inhabitants of Poland, who used them with matchlocks; yet the officer I allude to had no motive for deviating from the truth. Other things, such as vessels of earthenware, and instruments of war, common to ancient nations, said to have been dug out of these heaps, are more consistent with probability.

In the evening of this day we embarked upon the Don for Tscherchaskoy, accompanied by Lieutenant-colonel Alexi Gregoriwitch Papof, to whom we were indebted for instances of hospitality and polite attention, which strangers might vainly expect in more enlightened cities of Europe. His education had been liberal, though received in the marshes of the Don, and his accomplishments might have graced the most refined society, although derived from the natives of Tscherchaskoy.*

* Mr Heber, in his observations on Oxai, has afforded a most genuine tribute to the enlightened minds of the Cossacks of the Don. "There is here a very decent *kabak*, with a billiard-table, and a room adorned with many German engravings; and one

In almost all its characteristics, the Don bears resemblance to the Nile. It has the same regular annual inundation, covering a great extent of territory, over which we now passed by water to Tscherchaskoy, although the land is dry by the month of July or August. The same aquatic plants are found in both rivers; and, in particular, the same tall flags, reeds, and bulrushes, sometimes rising to the height of twenty feet. The manner in which they disembogue themselves into the sea, by a plurality of *embouchures*, is again the same, forming several small islands, as in the Delta, filled with swamps and morasses. Both one and the other serve as boundaries to two principal quarters of the globe. When the waters retire, the astonishing variety of insects then engendered might induce a zealous entomologist to visit the Don for that express purpose. Even at the period of the inundation, when the waters were at the highest, we observed above thirty different kinds of flies, at the same instant, upon the tables of our apartment. The whole course of the Don is about 666 miles. It rises near Tula, in a lake called the Ivan Ozero, or St John's Sea. Below Woronetz, it is from 300 to 600 fathoms broad, and of sufficient depth, from the middle of April to the end of June, for ships of burden; but during the rest of the year the water is so low, that on several of the shallows it is not above a foot and a half deep. In the spring floods it rises from sixteen to eighteen feet perpendicular, and the current is very rapid. The principal rivers generally stated to fall into it are the Danaetz, the Woronetz, the Choper, the Medvéditz, and the Ilavla; but there are others, unnoticed hitherto by geographers, not, perhaps, of equal importance, although entitled to a place in maps of the country, on account of the population found upon their shores.

About twenty miles below Woronetz, close to the river, near a town called Kastinskoy, Gmelin observed one of those deposits of elephants' bones, of which there exist such wonderful remains in Siberia, at the mouths of rivers which fall into the Icy Sea. These bones are described as lying in the greatest disorder; teeth, jawbones, ribs, vertebræ, not mineralised, nor, as it is commonly expressed, petrified, but in their natural state, except having suffered a partial decomposition. Neither is the Don without antiquities worthy of a more particular description than can now be afforded. A tradition exists in the country, which pretends that Alexander the Great passed the Don, and built a city, or citadel, upon the river, at a place called Zimlanskaia, 200 miles above the town of Tscherchaskoy, where the best Don wine is now made. Some insignificant traces of such a work are still said to exist. At General Orlof's house were two plain pillars of marble, actually brought from thence. The Cossacks are too little interested in such matters to invent tales of this kind, and they would do so the less where no inquiry was made to instigate them. The information, such as it is, was given spontaneously; and, indeed, the circumstances of their tradition are somewhat corroborated by reference to ancient history. The Pillars of Alexander were, according to Ptolemy, in Asiatic Sarmatia, and in the vicinity of the Tanaïs. The Altars of Alexander were on the European side of the river. We heard, moreover, of coins of Alexander, but none were to be seen. Perhaps, among the numerous Greeks who reside in Tscherchaskoy, both spurious and genuine coins of Alexander may have been found, and thus have given foundation to the report. Of the marble pillars, however, the history is unequivocal, because General Orlof himself, who possessed them, and who gave orders for their removal from Zimlanskaia, gave me the intelligence. The boats upon the Don present the most ancient form of vessel used for navigation—that of a canoe, scooped from a single tree, and consisting of one piece of timber, in which they move about with a single paddle. Sometimes, as in the South Seas, they join two of these canoes by transverse planks laid across, and so form a kind of deck, capable of conveying considerable burdens. If I could form any exact admeasurement by my eye, I should state the breadth of the river at Oxai, at this season of the year, to be at least half a mile. The current is rapid, and even turbulent. The fishes caught in it are much too numerous to be mentioned, as perhaps there is no river in the world which presents a greater variety, or in greater perfection. Among the principal are the *beluga*, the common sturgeon, the sterlet, sudak, trout, Prussian carp, tench, pike, perch, water-tortoises, and crawfish of an enormous size, some of which are as large as lobsters. The last are caught in great abundance, by sinking small nets, about six inches in diameter, baited with pieces of salted fish. They sold at the rate of twopence (English) per hundred, and in some seasons of the year the same number may be had for half that sum. The beluga is the largest eatable fish known. In the kidneys of very old ones are sometimes found calculi as large as a man's fist. Professor Pallas gave me one, which Doctor Tennant analysed, and it was found to consist almost wholly of phosphate of lime. The lower sort of people keep these calculi as talismans, for the cure of certain disorders. Strahlenberg relates, that he saw a beluga fifty-six feet long, and near eighteen feet thick.* In the Don they seldom exceed twelve feet in length. In shape, this fish very much resembles the sturgeon. One of the oldest fishermen upon the Don possessed a secret by which he was enabled to ensnare the largest belugas, but he would communicate to no one his valuable discovery. We saw him fishing at a considerable distance from our boat, and could distinctly perceive that he plunged continually a hollow cylinder into the river, which made a noise under water like the bursting of an air bubble, and could be heard from the shore on each side.

The appearance of Tscherchaskoy, as the traveller approaches it on the river, affords a most novel spectacle. Although not so grand as Venice, it somewhat resembles that city. The entrance is by broad canals, which intersect it in all parts. On either side, wooden houses, built on piles, appear to float upon the water, to which the inhabitants pass in boats, or by narrow bridges only two planks wide, with posts and rails, forming a causeway to every quarter of the place. As we sailed into the town, we beheld the younger part of its inhabitants upon the house-tops, sitting on the ridges of the sloping roofs, with their dogs, which were actually running about and barking in that extraordinary situation. On our approach, children leaped from the windows and doors, like so many frogs, into the water, and in an instant were seen swimming about our boat. Every thing seemed to announce an amphibious race—not an inch of dry land was to be seen; and, in the midst of a very populous metropolis, at least one half of its citizens were in the water, and the other in the air. Colonel Papof conducted us to the house of a general, the principal officer and ataman of Tscherchaskoy.† He was a merchant, and very rich. His house,

English print, that of the Death of Chevalier Bayard. The Cossacks, having never heard of the *Chevalier sans reproche*, called it the Death of Darius. On my asking if Bourbon was *Alexandro Macedonsky*, they answered, to my surprise, that he was not present at the death of Darius, and showed themselves well skilled in his history, which one would hardly expect."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

"Education among the Cossacks is not so low as is generally thought, and it improves daily. All the children of officers are sent to the academy of Circask, and learn French, German, &c. It was holiday time when we were there; but their progress was well spoken of."—HEBER.

* [Dr Lyall in his History of Moscow (p. 277) states, that on the 20th March 1819, he saw a beluga in the fish-market of Moscow, the total weight of which was 70 pouds, or 2450 English pounds. Without the head the weight was 61 pouds, so that the head alone was 9 pouds, or 324 English pounds. It was brought from the Dora, and was sold for the uso of the court at 24 roubles a-poud without the head, producing 1464 roubles. It was offered with the head for 1500 roubles.]

† "The internal government of Circask is exercised, under the ataman, by a master of police, and a chancery of four persons. The police master, and, on solemn occasions, the ataman, is distinguished by a large staff, with a silver filigree head, resembling that of a drum-major."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

like all those we saw afterwards, was characterised by extreme cleanliness, and very elegantly furnished. On its walls were French and English prints; among others, one very fine engraving of a subject which I have always regarded with more than common interest. It represented Rousseau in his last moments, desiring his housekeeper to open the window, that he might once more behold the face of nature. The general having requested that we would accept of his services while we staid, appointed an officer to attend us, to provide us with sentinels, and whatever else we might want.

The town of Tsherchaskoy is divided into eleven stanitzas, and contains to the number of 15,000 inhabitants. The number of houses amounts to 3000; allowing, upon the average, five persons to each. This, from all we could learn, is the true state of the population. Here are seven churches; four of stone, and three of wood. One of the latter description is for Tartar worship, the Tartars having a stanitza in Tscherchaskoy peculiar to their own people. Their religion is Mahometan, and their church perfectly plain, exhibiting the utmost simplicity, and entirely destitute of pictures or images, having a little recess, a pulpit for the priest, and a gallery for boys and young men. The elders only enter the lower part, which is covered with carpets; and, as in Turkey, no one is permitted to enter with boots or shoes. Nevertheless, upon this sacred floor they transact their business; for we found a Tartar casting up his accounts, and writing, squatted with all his commercial papers about him.

The first church erected in Tscherchaskoy was founded by Peter the Great, as an inscription placed in the wall implies; but it has suffered frequently from fire, as indeed have all the other churches. It is now of stone, and contains a handsome screen, painted of a bright green colour, and richly gilded, as at Oxai. They burn, moreover, green wax candles. In this church are kept what they call their *regalia;* applying the term to republican, rather than to regal, ensigns of distinction. These were exhibited for our inspection, and consisted chiefly of presents from different sovereigns, standards, and embroidered flags, bearing the imperial arms; politic donations, serving as memorials, lest the Cossacks might forget to what empire they belonged. We here saw lances, fashioned after the manner of the Asiatics, with tufts of fine camel's hair hanging from the point. Perhaps the origin of such an appendage may be referred to those barbarous periods when oriental nations drank the blood of their enemies. It may be recollected that I have already described an instrument of the same form, in use for drinking what is deemed precious among the Calmucks at this day, who thrust a small lance with a tuft of camel's hair into the stills which contain the spirit they procure from mares' milk, and squeeze the tuft into the palm of their hand, in order to drink what it contains.* With these lances were preserved also silver-headed staves for their atamans, rich and beautiful manuscripts, chiefly certificates of the brave conduct of their people in war, sent as testimonials by the sovereigns whom they had served, and a map of their territory, by the hand of the late Empress Catherine. The standards she presented to them are exceedingly costly. Great part of their *regalia* was burned in one of the terrible conflagrations to which their town has been exposed; and among the things then lost were some presents from Peter the Great. There still remained one of his gifts very characteristic of that extraordinary man. Among the rich staves of ebony, silver-headed, and magnificently adorned, which different sovereigns have sent to them, to be borne by their ataman, appeared one without any other ornament than what nature had bestowed upon it. Of this they were more proud than of all the rest. It was like the club we see usually represented with the figure of Hercules, of plain unadorned wood, though covered with sturdy knots, and calculated for the hands of a giant. In the same church was also suspended the singular picture of the Virgin with the Bleeding Cheek, but with a remarkable addition to the usual representation. Below the figure of the Virgin, a hand appeared painted of the natural size, as if cut off and fastened to the picture—a knife also was placed by the hand—and they related, that a priest struck at a picture of the Virgin, and wounded her in the cheek, which ever continued to bleed; but immediately the blow was made, the hand of the priest came off, and, with the knife, remained afterwards adhering to the picture.

There is another stone church in Tscherchaskoy, which suffered more recently from fire. About four years ago, the inhabitants undertook its reparation, and erected a screen of great magnificence, which, if not equal to any thing of the kind in Russia, is certainly an astonishing piece of workmanship for this part of the world. It is built in the Grecian taste, and consists of fourteen Corinthian columns, covered entirely with burnished gold. There are, besides, similar pilasters, with paintings in a more modern style, and more pleasing than the stiff appearance usually exhibited by the pictures in Russian churches.

Almost all the other public edifices in Tscherchaskoy are of wood. They are as follow:—

1. The Chancery, in which the administration of justice, and all other public business, is carried on. This building contains their papers, records, and other documents. One room in it is appropriated to their assembly for public debates, which much resembles our House of Commons. It contained the emperor's portrait, which was more like him than any we had seen. When a general assembly is convened, it consists of a president, with all the generals, colonels, and staff-officers, who hold councils, not merely of war, but of all affairs relating to the public welfare.

2. Another court of justice, called Sclavesnesut, which signifies *justice by word.* The assemblies here answer to our quarter-sessions. Parties who have any disagreement meet with their witnesses, and state their grievances. Each receives a hearing, and afterwards justice is decided.

3. The Public Academy, in which their youth receive instruction in geometry, mechanics, physics, geography, history, arithmetic, &c. &c.

4. The Apothecaries' Hall.

5. The Town Hall of the eleven stanitzas into which the town is divided.

6. Six Prisons, four of which are for males, and two for females. The prisoners are suffered to go about in their chains, for the purpose of begging.

The shops here are very numerous, and kept chiefly by Greeks. These contain the produce of Turkey and Greece; as pearls, cloth, shawls, tobacco, fruit, &c. There are also two public baths, and each stanitza has its respective tavern for liquors, brandy, wine, &c., and its *traiteur*, or cook's-shop, for victuals. Every Saturday evening a ceremony takes place in all the churches, which is called *the benediction of bread.* Upon such occasions, five white loaves are placed in the middle of each church, as symbols of those with which Christ fed the multitude; and the people pray, that, as with five loaves he fed 5000, he would condescend to grant a sufficiency of corn in the country for the bread of its inhabitants, and bless it for their use.

I do not know whence the notion was derived, that the Cossacks are of Polish origin; but it has become prevalent, and a seasonable opportunity now offers to show that it is founded in error. The Cossacks have been known as a distinct people nearly nine hundred years. According to Constantine Porphyrogenetes, their name has continued unaltered since the time in which he wrote. It is found in the appellation of a tribe near Mount Caucasus. "And beyond the Papagian country," says he, "is the country called Casachia; but beyond the Casachs are the summits of Caucasus." It is impossible to obtain more striking information. Our countryman, Jonas Hanway, calls the Don Cossacks "a species of Tartars." Storch, who has written fully and learnedly on the subject, although he admits the resemblance which they bear to Tartars, in their mode of life, constitution, and features, insists that they are of Russian origin. Scherer, who has appropriated a work

* See p. 56 of this work.

entirely to the investigation of their history, and continually inculcates the notion of their Polish origin, nevertheless opens his work with an extract of a different nature; but it has all the air of a fable. It is taken from Nestor's Russian Annals. A Russian prince, and a Cossack chief, at the head of their respective armies, agree to determine their differences by a wrestling match, which ends in the assassination of the Cossack by the Russian. This event is followed by the subjugation of the Cossack territory. To have seen them, and to have lived with them, is sufficient to establish a conviction that they have nothing in common with Russians, except the language they now speak, and which probably was introduced when they became converted to the Russian church. Let us pay some attention at least to what they say of themselves. Those of the Don relate, that a party of Cossacks being engaged in their usual occupation of hunting, near the range of Mount Caucasus, met a number of people with whom they were strangers, going towards the east; and having inquired who they were, the strangers answered, that they were emigrants from Poland, who had fled the oppression of their nobles, and were proceeding to Persia, to join the troops of that country against the Turks. The Cossacks told them they might spare themselves the trouble of so long a march in order to commit hostilities upon the Turks, and persuaded them to return with them to the town of Tscherchaskoy, where they would find an asylum, and whence, in concert with them, they might attack the fortress of Azof. Assisted by this reinforcement, and with only four pieces of cannon, which was all the artillery they possessed at that time, they made the attack upon Azof, which fell into the hands of the combined forces. From the circumstances of this association, which first enabled the Cossacks to make a figure among the nations at war with Turkey, might have been derived the erroneous notion of their having migrated from Poland. The Cossacks of the Don, according to the account which the best instructed among them give of their own people (and they are much better qualified to write a history than any of the Russian academicians), are a mixture of various nations, principally of Circassians, Malo-Russians, and Russians, but also of Tartars, Poles, Greeks, Turks, Calmucks, and Armenians. In the town of Tscherchaskoy alone, and in the same street, may be seen all these different people at once, and each in the habit peculiar to his nation. A considerable proportion of the inhabitants have ever been refugees, escaped from Turkey, Greece, or other countries, to this place. Concerning the first establishment of their town, they relate, that it was founded by refugees from Greece, to whom the people of Azof denied admission, and who, in consequence, proceeding farther up the river, came to this island, on which they made their settlement; giving to it a name derived from the people upon whose frontier it was situated, and with whom they afterwards intermixed. The name of the town, although pronounced Tscherchasky, is written Tscherchaskoy, which implies "the small village of the Tscherchas," pronounced generally Tscherchess, or, as we write it, Circassians. Koi, or koy, in the Tartar language, signifies a small village; and is therefore often the terminating syllable in the names of places in that country; as Kasinskoy, Moscovskoy, and Nikitskoy. Thus, from a small settlement of rovers, augmented principally by intercourse with the neighbouring Circassians, has since accumulated like a vast *avalange* the immense horde of the Cossacks. Before the middle of the tenth century, they had already reached the frontier of Poland, and began an intercourse with the people of that country, which was often attended with an augmentation of their horde by the settlement of Polish emigrants among them. Their first notable armament is said to have been in the year 948, when the Greek Emperor employed them as mercenaries in his war against the Turks. From their address in archery, their neighbours had given them the name of Chozars, and Chazars, under which latter appellation they are frequently mentioned by Constantine Porphyrogenetes, and their country called Chazaria. The Greek Emperor, for the services they rendered, sent them, with assurances of protection and recommendatory letters, to the Polish sovereign, requesting that in future their appellation might be Cossacks, and not Chozars. As to the origin of that name, some will have it to be derived from a Tartar word, signifying an armed man; others, from the sort of sabre they use; others, from a word that signifies a rover; others again pretend, that the Poles called them Cossacks, from a word in their language that implies a goat, because they formerly wore the skins of that animal. Scherer, objecting to this last derivation, substitutes another still more frivolous, and maintains it to have been taken from *kossa*, a small promontory. In this wild pursuit of etymology, I might also affirm, that *casaca* in Spanish signifies precisely the sort of coat they wear, answering to our English word *cassock*, did not Peyssonnel much more rationally, and, as it appears to me, incontestibly, ascertain the origin of their appellation. "The land of the Chazaks," says he, "formed part of that country which is now denominated Circassia, properly so called. In this district of Chazakia, according to my opinion, we ought to seek the origin of the Cossacks of the present day." The observation is actually confirmed by the facts I have already related; although so general became the migrations of this people, that their tribes are now found from the banks of the Dnieper to the remotest confines of Siberia. According to their different emigrations and settlements, they are at present distinguished by the various names of Malo-Russian Cossacks, Don Cossacks, Cossacks of the Black Sea, of the Volga, of Grebenskoy, of Orenbourgh, of the Ural Alps, and of Siberia; where they have received yet other appellations, and extend even to the mountains of China, and the Eastern Ocean. It is necessary to confine our attention to the principal hive, whence, with little exception, all these swarms proceeded.

Nothing has contributed more to augment the colony of Don Cossacks than the freedom they enjoy. Surrounded by systems of slavery, they offer the singular spectacle of an increasing republic; like a nucleus, putting forth its roots and ramifications to all parts of an immense despotic empire, which considers it a wise policy to promote their increase and to guarantee their privileges. As they detest the Russians, a day may arrive, when, conscious of their own importance, they will make their masters more fully sensible of their power. A sage regulation in their military constitution, from a very early period, induced them to grant all the privileges they enjoy to such of their prisoners of war as chose to settle among them. Thus, from the success which has attended their incursions, their numbers have rapidly increased. In the year 1579, they made their appearance for the first time in the Russian armies. In 1734, their first colonies were established upon the Volga. About the same time, another colony marched towards the Terek, and settled there. Towards the middle of the last century, a detachment fixed their residence along the banks of the Samara, the Ui, and the Ural, as far as the Kirgisian frontier. But by much the most powerful colony which has migrated from the original hive, is that established upon the shores of the Caspian, at the mouth of the Ural river, which left the Don in the beginning of the fifteenth century, and has since been augmented by subsequent emigrations from the parent stock. This branch of the Don Cossacks joined in the rebellion under Pugatchef. In order to annihilate the memory of their revolt, the Russian government changed their name (which had hitherto been Cossacks of the Jaik), as well as the name of their capital, and of the river upon which they resided.

The most remarkable branch of the Don Cossacks is that which has been established in Siberia. They began to march towards the east in the sixteenth century. A troop of between six and seven thousand of them, under the conduct of their ataman, Jermak, penetrated into Permia, and made the discovery of the country to which we commonly apply the appellation of Siberia. Their adventures, and those of their chief, might lay the foundation of a very interesting romance, but we

may despair of seeing it constitute a portion of history. They had gained the heights of the Ural Alps, when the appearance of vast deserts, tenanted by an unknown and savage people, somewhat intimidated the enterprising clan. Jermak, full of zeal, harangues his little army. They descend the mountains; defeat and drive before them a host of Tartars; pursue their conquests even to the Tobol, the Irtysch, and the Ob, and terminate their surprising march by the subjugation of all the tribes dwelling between the Ural and Altaic chain. Unable, from the losses they had sustained, and the obstacles they had yet to surmount, to maintain possession of such extensive territory, they were compelled to humble themselves before the Russians. In 1581, Jermak made the cession of his conquests, by formal capitulation, to the Tsar Joan, who, in consideration of the important services he had rendered to the empire, not only pardoned him, but even recompensed his extraordinary talents and courage. Thus was Siberia added to the extensive possessions of Russia by a Cossack of the Don, whose achievements were only less glorious than the boasted victories of Alexander, because they have wanted historians to relate them.

I have carried the history of the Don Cossacks back to the period in which they first formed an establishment upon the Don. The foundation of Tscherchaskoy, from their own account, is attributed to the settling of some rovers, probably exiles from Greece. The shores of the Sea of Azof, and of the Black Sea, were, in very early ages, what America, and more recently New Holland, has been to us. The Greeks sent thither many of their exiles, and the custom was continued among the Romans, as appears by the banishment of Ovid. The opinion, therefore, of the Cossacks, concerning the foundation of Tscherchaskoy, is not without support, even in ancient history. With regard to their own origin as a nation, there is every reason to consider it, for the most part, Circassian; and, as such, the analogy with Poles or Russians, instead of leading us to deduce their origin from them, should rather guide us to the common stock, whence the Sclavonian, the Polish, the Prussian, the Muscovitish, Bohemian, and Transylvanian, people and language were severally derived. All the ancient historians and geographers confirm the truth of their march from Media, through the Straits of Mount Caucasus, towards the Tanaïs, and round the Euxine. Their first colonies were called Sarmatians; and the earliest account of that people is given in Herodotus, who places them between Mount Caucasus and the Tanaïs.

The Circassians of the present day, of whom I shall soon speak, are a horde of banditti, who inhabit precisely the region whence the Cossacks originally descended. Continually repelled from their ancient boundary, the Tanaïs and lake Mæotis, and ultimately driven beyond the Kuban and the Terek, they hang, as it were, upon the northern sides of Caucasus, or carry on their predatory incursions from the swampy plains at its feet, above 200 miles from Tscherchaskoy. They, as well as the Tartars of Kuban, are ever at war with the Cossacks. They pretended to make peace with them at the end of the last Turkish war; but whenever occasion offers, they seize the persons of the Cossacks, or any strangers who may be found among them, and sell them for slaves to the Persians. Their manner of fighting, as described to me by the Don Cossacks, is to hide themselves in the long reeds, or grass, of marshes, lying even in the water, until they reconnoitre the strength of their adversary. If five or six armed Cossacks appear, they remain in ambush; if only two or three, they attack them by surprise; but even then they will run away if the Cossacks have time to fire. If discovered in their concealment, and interrogated who they are, they declare themselves friends. Some of them were with the general prisoners at Oxai when we were there. The Cossacks, and all the inhabitants of the Asiatic coasts of the Black Sea, call the Circassians Tscherchess, and Tscherchessi, a further proof of what I have before said of the etymology of the word Tscherchaskoy, which might, perhaps, be more accurately written Tcherchaskoy; but I have adopted the orthography recommended by its best informed inhabitants. If it were necessary to make any addition to what I have already written, concerning the relation they bear to the Cossacks and other inhabitants of the Ukraine, many curious circumstances might be alleged; such, for example, as the mode of accounting money, which is the same among the Malo-Russians and Circassians. There are now Malo-Russians living in the Caucasian mountains. The Circassians, moreover, left their name in the appellation of a town built upon the Dnieper.

The commerce of the Cossacks, and other inhabitants of Tscherchaskoy, is very various. The principal articles of their exports are fish, iron, caviare, and a little wine; although, generally, they consume all their wine. It resembles Burgundy, and is between Burgundy and Champagne, effervescing violently; and when it has acquired a certain age, it sells in Tscherchaskoy at a price equivalent to three shillings and sixpence the bottle. They have both red and white. If they would suffer their grapes to ripen, and knew the best art of preparing, it would certainly surpass all the wines of the world; so rich and generous are the grapes from which it is expressed.* The Cossacks use little or no tobacco, and live to a very advanced age. The merchants of the place, when it is their turn, go to war like the rest, and have their rank in the army.† In

* "The Don wine is sometimes very pleasant, but it is, I suspect, a fabrication. I tasted some that was warranted genuine, which I could easily believe to be so; it was indeed

'As wicked dew as Sycorax could brush
With raven's feather from unwholesome fen.'"

HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

† "The government of the armies of the Don differs, in many respects, from the ancient Malo-Russian, and has lately suffered repeated encroachments. Their territory, which is almost entirely pasture land, is divided into stanitzas, or cantons; for many stanitzas now contain more than a single village. To each of these, a certain portion of land and fishery is allotted by government, and an annual allowance of corn from Voronetz, and northwards, according to the returned number of Cossacks. They are free from all taxes, even from those of salt and distilleries. The distribution of the land to the individuals in each stanitza is settled by the inhabitants and their ataman. This ataman was chosen by the people, and was both civil and military commander of the place. Paul had laid some restrictions on this right, which I could not understand. He had also ennobled the children of all who had the military rank of colonel, which was complained of, as introducing an unconstitutional aristocracy. From these atamans, an appeal lies to the chancery at Circask. They used to elect their ataman there, and to appeal to him only, assembling, occasionally, as a check on his conduct; but he is now appointed by the crown, and greatly diminished in power. The allotment of land and fishery which each Cossack possesses may be let out by him to farm, and often is so; and it is a frequent abuse to insert the names of children in the return of Cossacks, to entitle them to their seniority in becoming officers. I met with a child thus favoured. This has taken place since the Cossacks, when called out, have been formed into regular regiments, which has depressed entirely the power of the village ataman, by the introduction of colonels, captains, &c. Formerly, the ataman himself marched at the head of his stanitza. Now he merely sends the required contingent, which is put under officers named by the crown.

The Cossack, in consequence of his allowance, may be called on to serve for any term, not exceeding three years, in any part of the world, mounted, armed, and clothed, at his own expense, and making good any deficiencies which may occur. Food, pay, and camp equipage, are furnished by government. Those who have served three years are not liable, or at least not usually called upon, to serve abroad, except on particular emergencies. They serve, however, in the cordon along the Caucasus, and in the duties of the post and police. After twenty years, they become free from all service, except the home duties of police, and assisting in the passage of the corn barks over the shallows in the Don. After twenty-five years' service, they are free entirely.

The procurator declared the whole number of Cossacks, liable to be called on for one or other of these services, amounted to 200,000. He acknowledged, that as they would allow no examination into their numbers, he spoke only from conjecture, and from the different allowances of corn, &c., occasionally made. The whole number of male population he reckoned at half a million. The situation of a Cossack is considered as comfortable; and their obligations to service are deemed well repaid by their privilege

fact, there are few generals or colonels in the army of the Don Cossacks, who are not merchants. In Tscherchaskoy they live an amicable and pleasant life. Sometimes they have public amusements, such as balls, and parties of pleasure. Once they had a theatre, but it was prohibited. In some of their apartments we observed mahogany book-cases, with glass doors, containing a small library. They are in every respect entitled to praise for their cleanliness, whether of their persons or their houses. There is no nation (I will not even except my own) more cleanly in their apparel than the Cossacks. The dress of their women is singular. It differs from all the costumes of Russia; and its magnificence is vested in the ornaments of a cap, somewhat resembling the mitre of a Greek bishop. The hair of married women is tucked under this cap, which is covered with pearls and gold, or adorned with flowers. The dress of a Cossack girl is elegant; a silk tunic, with trousers fastened by a girdle of solid silver, yellow boots, and an Indian handkerchief round the head. A proof of their riches was afforded in the instance of the mistress of the house where we lodged. This woman walked about the apartments without shoes or stockings; and being asked for some needles to secure the insects we had collected, opened a box, in which she showed us pearls to the value of ten thousand roubles. Her cupboard at the same time was filled with plate and costly porcelain. The common dress of the men in Tscherchaskoy was a blue jacket, with a waistcoat and trousers of white dimity—the latter so white and spotless, that they seemed always new. The tattered state of a traveller's wardrobe but ill fitted us to do credit to our country in this respect. I never saw a Cossack in a dirty suit of clothes. Their hands, moreover, are always clean, their hair free from vermin, their teeth white, and their skin has a healthy and cleanly appearance. Polished in their manners, instructed in their minds, hospitable, generous, disinterested in their hearts, humane and tender to the poor, good husbands, good fathers, good wives, good mothers, virtuous daughters, valiant and dutiful sons; such are the natives of Tscherchaskoy. In conversation, the Cossack is a gentleman; for he is well informed, free from prejudice, open, sincere, and upright. Place him by the side of a Russian—what a contrast!* The one is literally a two-legged pig, having all the brutality, but more knavery, than that animal;* the other, a rational, accomplished, and valuable member of society. I would not be understood to have made this observation as without exception on either side. The Russian women are entirely excepted; and it is very remarkable, that little of the lamentable characteristics of the Russian people can be applied to them. It is only in proportion as they recede from their natural effeminacy, that any traits have appeared to assimilate them to the males of their country, and an instance or two of this kind may have been mentioned; but, speaking generally of them, they have this only fault, if it be not rather a misfortune, that of servility to the worst of slaves.

Perhaps an anecdote which I shall now relate may render the preceding contrast between the Cossacks and Russians more striking. The truth of it, on account of its notoriety, will not be disputed by either party. Whenever a quarrel among the Cossacks causes them to combat each other, they fight, as in England, with their fists, and never with knives, daggers, or any sharp instrument. This practice is so established a characteristic of their people, that it gave rise to a very remarkable wager. Teplof and Gelagin, two of the late Empress Catherine's privy-councillors, happened to be in her presence, when it was told her that a Cossack priest, then a monk in the Convent of St Alexander Nevski, had been arrested for cutting the throat of a young woman, whom he had made pregnant, and with whom he had quarrelled; upon which Teplof offered to wager with Gelagin that the monk was not a Cossack. The bet was made, and won by Teplof; the monk proving to be a Russian. Being questioned how he could possibly divine the probable success of his wager—"Be-

and their freedom. 'Free as a Cossack' is a proverb we often heard in Russia. The number of Cossack guards, who are all *Donsky*, amounts to three regiments of 1000 each. The number employed in Persia and Caucasus I could not learn. In the year 1805, a corps of seventy-two regiments, of 560 men each, marched under Platof, the ataman of Circask; but received counter orders, as it did not arrive in time for the battle of Austerlitz. *At Austerlitz, only six hundred Cossacks were present.* The peasants near Austerlitz spoke of them as objects of considerable apprehension to the French cavalry; particularly the cuirassiers, whose horses were more unwieldy. These Cossacks, Platof said, had suffered dreadfully, as they were for some time the only cavalry with the Russian army, and, before the emperor joined Kotuzof, had lost almost all their horses with fatigue. During the quarrel of Paul with England, he assembled 45,000 Cossacks, as it was believed, at Circask, *to march to India.* I saw the plan was not at all unpopular with Platof and his officers. Platof's predecessor was the last ataman who was in possession of all his ancient privileges. He had often, by his own authority, bound men hand and foot, and thrown them into the Don. He was unexpectedly seized and carried off by the orders of the empress (*Catherine*), and succeeded, as general of the armies of the Don, by Maffei Ivanovitch Platof, a fine civil old soldier, with the great cordon of St Anne."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

[The valuable notes of the late Bishop of Calcutta seldom require any alteration, but in this instance he has made a mistake. The predecessor of the celebrated Platof was General Orlof, who remained ataman of the Don Cossacks until the first year of Alexander's reign, and only ceased to be so upon his death. It is possible that Mr Heber may have confounded some village ataman with the ataman-general, as the similarity of title may easily expose an author to mistakes.]

* "The manners of the people struck us, from their superiority to the Russians in honesty and dignity. A lieutenant at Petersburg, who once begged alms from us, bowed himself to the ground, and knocked his head on the floor. A lieutenant here (Tscherchaskoy), who was imprisoned, and also begged, made the request in a manly and dignified manner, and thanked us as if we had been his comrades.

Both men and women are handsome, and taller than the Muscovites. This name they hold in great contempt, as we had several opportunities of observing. The procurator, the physician, the apothecary, and the master of the academy, being distinguished by their dress and nation from the Cossacks, seemed to have formed a coterie of their own, and to dislike, and to be disliked by, the whole town. The postmaster said they were much improved since he came here; that then they would have pelted any stranger. We saw nothing of this kind, except that, when we first landed, mistaking us for Russians, some boys cried out '*Moscoffsky Canaille!*'—Canaille has become a naturalised word in Russia."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

* At the time of making this extract from my journal, our English papers are filled with the atrocities committed, not merely by their common soldiers, but by their general officers, in Finland. An account of them is published by the lord-lieutenant of the county of Wasa, to which his respectable name is affixed. Posterity may there be informed what Russians were in the beginning of the present century, when a Major-general Demidof gave up the town of Wasa during five days to plunder, merely because he could not retain its possession; and, assisted by another monster in a human form, the Governor Emine, galloped through the streets, to give vigour and activity to a scene of murder, horrible cruelty, and devastation; crying out to his troops, *Dobra! dobra!* ("Bravo! bravo!") as they were bayoneting the weeping and kneeling inhabitants, mothers with their infants, aged and venerable men, ladies of distinction, children, and persons of whatever sex, age, or situation. "It instructs the world," observes the lord-lieutenant, "to describe their conduct, inasmuch as it determines their national character; and determines, with historic truth, that with barbarian slaves the character remains unchanged, notwithstanding the varnish put on by a sort of external humanising, produced by intercourse with civilised nations." In the parish of Nerpis, Major-general Orlof Denesof caused three of the peasants to be bound together; and this being done, to prolong the pain and agony of the poor sufferers, the Russians pierced their thighs, arms, belly, and other parts, with bayonets, before they killed them.

Injured inhabitants of Swedish Finland! One who has experienced the bounties of your hospitality; one who arrived among you weary, sick, and destitute; and to whom, consistently with your national character, you administered the most disinterested aid; the stranger, to whose honour you confided, unsolicited, the means of accomplishing his pilgrimage, he sympathises with you in your sufferings. He, too, has been exposed to barbarian rapacity—he, too, has been plundered by the Russians.

cause," said he, "no Cossack would strike a woman; if he did, he would use his hand, and not his knife."

It was on a Sunday evening that Lieutenant-colonel Papof conducted me over the whole of Tscherchaskoy. We walked a distance equal to four miles without once being off a bridge. The people were all in their best attire, and the sight, on that account, more interesting. From the high and narrow bridges, single planks frequently lead off, as the only mode of approaching the houses of the inhabitants, which have covered galleries around them. In these galleries, where the deal of which they were constructed was as white as water and the sun could make it, sat the old and respectable Cossacks, almost all of whom, as we passed, pressed us to walk into their houses and regale ourselves. The water flows beneath many of the buildings; and all of them are upon piles, in the midst of the flood.* The prodigious quantity of timber consumed in the town, for houses, causeways, and bridges, is brought from the Volga, the Don being inadequate to such a supply. Formerly they had walls to their aquatic settlement, but the inundations of the river have swept them entirely away. The principal part of the inhabitants are exceedingly desirous to remove their capital to Oxai, which would increase its commerce, and add to its importance; the rest, who, from attachment to the place of their nativity, are still anxious to preserve it in its original situation, propose to surround it again with walls, and to form channels, after a plan which would make its resemblance to Venice greater than it is at present; but the level of the water not remaining constant, as in the Adriatic, and sometimes varying full fifteen feet, prevents the adoption of that plan. They neglect, however, no opportunity to improve the town, forming it as much as possible into streets, when fires have taken place and destroyed the old buildings, and insulating the houses where they were too closely situated. If any attempt should be made to remove the town, little difficulty would occur in transplanting the houses almost entire. They are chiefly of wood, and, being placed on rafts, might float down to the place of their destination.

They speak of moving a house in this part of the world as a very trifling undertaking. When the late Mr Gascoigne went from Petersburg to preside over the foundry at Lugan, he paid a visit to a gentleman about twenty-seven miles distant from the establishment. Finding him excellently lodged in a well-furnished, handsome, and very convenient house, "I wish," said he, "I could have such a building erected for me at Lugan." His host replied: "If you admire my house, it is at your service, exactly as you see it, and I engage to place it for you at Lugan in the course of the week." A bargain was concluded between them, the house was moved; and Mr Gascoigne, who informed me of the fact, resided in it when we were in that country.

The inhabitants of Tscherchaskoy complain much of want of room. Not a single house has a court-yard; they are all huddled together, as if they had dropped from the clouds during a shower, into the river, and only waited the retiring of the waters to make their escape. They are much troubled with mosquitoes, which abound in all the neighbourhood of the Don. When bit by these insects, they observe great caution in not scratching the wound, but are careful to bathe it, as soon as possible, with spirits of wine. I have always found Goulard's lotion to be the best remedy, and, wanting that, salt mixed with an equal portion of vinegar. There is not, I believe, a single spot in the whole town which is not annually inundated. We found one dry place near the principal church, but it was traversed by wooden causeways, which proved that the usual precaution had been required there also, although the spot was not actually covered by water at the time. The street in which most of the shops are situated is floored with planks; and it must necessarily be very unwholesome, as all the dirt, falling through these floors, remains when the waters retire. They are often troubled with fevers, although when we inquired into the list of their diseases, they said they seldom had any. The greatest ravage is made by the small-pox. Inoculation for that disorder had not yet been introduced among them. The complaint they seem to dread, more than any other, is called *the disorder of the hairs.* Gmelin mentions this complaint.* Hair is said to be generated in wounds of the bodies of those whom it afflicts. We expressed our incredulity to the wife of Lieutenant-colonel Papof; but she persisted in asserting that she had taken them from her own finger, in the presence of many witnesses. To cure it, they bind the leaves of a plant somewhat like the plantain, which they say draw out the hairs. We saw these leaves, dried, suspended expressly as a remedy for this complaint; but, in their desiccated state, could not exactly pronounce what they were. Biliary obstruction is a common disorder among them. As a cure for the jaundice, they drink an infusion of the yellow flowers of a *gnaphalium*, which is found in all the steppes. Stationed as they are, either in mud, yielding insalutary exhalations, or in water, full of frogs, filth, and substances which putrify as the flood retires, nothing could preserve them from pestilence, were it not for the great attention shown to cleanliness in their persons and their houses. The water of the Don is in itself unwholesome, and particularly disagrees with strangers. It causes a flatulent disorder of the stomach and bowels, with violent pain and dysentery. Many of the Russian rivers have the same quality, particularly the Neva at Petersburg.

A Greek brought me some coins of the Emperor Constantine, which he had procured in Turkey. He kept them, he said, for the cure of diseases of all kinds, and, in proof of their miraculous power, swore, by all his saints, that if any one of them was placed in a sieve, not a drop of water would pass through it. As we laughed at his folly, he was very desirous to make the experiment; but we thought it too ridiculous to merit so much attention. He seemed to be the very prince of impostors, and probably sold his trash at high prices. He showed us a piece of the *true* cross, which he said he had brought from Jerusalem, and which, worn upon his breast, had saved his life in battle—as a bullet striking the pretended relic had fallen harmless to the ground.

Having now satisfied our curiosity in the survey of this extraordinary place, we took leave of its inhabitants, and again embarked, accompanied by the officer who had so politely attended us, and whose hospitality we had often experienced, during the visit we paid to his capital. We left Tscherchaskoy on Monday the 23d of June, in the afternoon, and sailed down the Don to Oxai. About four miles from Tscherchaskoy is an island called Nunnery Isle, or the Island of the Convent, whence, as they relate, the Turks used frequently, in former times, to derive women for the seraglio of the Grand Signior.

[Since the visit of Dr Clarke, the capital of the Don Cossacks has been removed. The situation of the town he has so well described, is unhealthy, and great damage and inconvenience were the consequences of the annual inundations of the Don. The town of Aksai was by far

* "Circask stands on some marshy islands in the river. The houses are all raised on wooden pillars, and connected by foot bridges. The foot-paths run like galleries before the houses. When we saw it, every part was flooded, except the principal street, the great church, and the market-place. The antique wooden cabins, mixed with the domes of churches, tops of trees, and Calmuck tents, had an interesting effect, just rising from the water. The *sudak* still continued to poison the air; but the houses, notwithstanding the people are all fishers, are neat. The Cossacks are much cleaner than the Russians. There is a spacious and ancient cathedral, nearly on the same plan as the Casan church in Moscow. Detached from the rest of the building, is a large tower, which at a distance gives a faint recollection of St Mary's spire at Oxford. There are many other churches, full of very costly ornaments. I never saw so many pearls at once, as on the head of a Madonna in the cathedral. These treasures are the spoils of Turkey and Poland."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

* He says it is known in Russia and the Ukraine under the name *volosez;* and he attended a case of abscess in Paulovskoy which afforded him ocular demonstration of the truth of such a disorder.

the most advantageous place at which the capital could have been situated; but the celebrated Platof, who had great influence with the Emperor Alexander, proposed the scheme of founding a new town, and his plan was adopted. The modern capital retains the name of the ancient one, they being distinguished as the new and the old Tscherchaskoy, (in Russ, Novo-Tcherkask and Staro-Tcherkask). The latter has in consequence dwindled to insignificance, and instead of having 15,000 inhabitants, as mentioned by Dr Clarke, scarcely possesses 2000 at present.

The new Tscherchaskoy is situated about ten miles from the old town, upon the banks of the river Aksai or Axay. It was commenced in the year 1807, and many of the inhabitants of the ancient capital were transferred to it. In 1822 it was stated to have 8000 inhabitants, the greater part of whom were Cossacks, but there were also several Tartars and Calmucks. The transference of the capital from the banks of a large and navigable river like the Don into the interior of the country with an indifferent water communication, is justly considered as a most impolitic step. (Vide Lyall's Travels, vol. II. p. 202.)

At the death of Platof on the 3d January 1818, General Denisof was nominated as his successor, who was followed by General Ilovaiskii. The Emperor Nicholas formally inaugurated his eldest son as ataman of the Don Cossacks in 1837.]

CHAPTER XIV.

VOYAGE DOWN THE DON TO AZOF AND TAGANROCK.

The morning after our return to Oxai, we received a message from General Vassili Petrovich Orlof, commander-in-chief of the Cossack army, stating, that he expected us to dine with him at his country-seat upon the Don. We set out, accompanied by our friend Colonel Papof, and a Greek officer in the Cossack service, whose name was Mamonof. The general had sent his carriage, with six fine Cossack horses, and several Cossacks mounted with lances, to escort us. We passed along the steppes, and occasionally through vineyards, planted with cucumbers, cabbages, Indian wheat, apple, pear, peach, and plum trees, and melons, for about ten miles, till we arrived at his house, which stood upon the European side of the river, opposite the town of Tscherchaskoy, and distant from it about five miles. Here we found elegant and accomplished women assembled round a piano-forte; and afterwards sat down to as magnificent a dinner as any English gentleman might afford; the whole of which was served upon plate. The company consisted of about twenty persons. The general presented us with mead thirty years old, which tasted like fine Madeira. He wished very much for English beer, having often drunk it in Poland. A number of very expensive wines were brought round, many of them foreign; but the best wine of the Don seemed superior to any of them. As we sat banqueting in this sumptuous manner, I called to mind the erroneous notions we had once entertained of the inhabitants of this country, and which the Russians still continue to propagate concerning the Cossack territory. Perhaps few in England, casting their eyes upon a map of this remote corner of Europe, have pictured in their imagination a wealthy and polished people, enjoying not only the refinements, but even the luxuries, of the most civilised nations. The conversation had that enlightened and agreeable cast which characterises well-educated military men. Some peculiarities, which distinguished the manners of our ancestors, and are still retained in the ceremonial feasts of ancient corporate bodies, might be observed. The practice of drinking toasts, and rising to pledge the security of the cup-bearer, was a remarkable instance. Another very ancient custom, still more prevalent, is that of bowing and congratulating any one who happens to sneeze. The Cossacks of the Don always did this. When we took leave of the general, he said, if we preferred returning by water, for the sake of variety, we might use his barge, which was prepared, and waiting to convey us. Being conducted to it, we found it manned by ten rowers, and decorated in a most costly manner. It was covered with fine scarlet cloth; and Persian carpets were spread beneath a canopy of silk. The current being in our favour, we embarked, and were speedily reconducted to our quarters in Oxai.*

The next morning we took our leave of the Don Cossacks, and having placed our carriage on board a barge, sailed delightfully down the river (often looking back at the fine view of the town of Oxai and Tscherchaskoy) to Nakhtshivan, an Armenian colony established about twenty years before our arrival, and which had attained a very flourishing state, even in that short period.†

* [English travellers seem invariably to have met with distinguished attentions from the atamans of the Cossacks. The open hospitality, the courtesy and liberality, of Count Platof, have been celebrated in enthusiastic terms by Colonel Johnson (Journey from India, &c. p. 314), and Sir R. K. Porter (Travels in Georgia, &c. vol. I. p. 26). That their accounts are not exaggerations, is quite evident from the relation of Dr Lyall, who states: —"We were treated in the most polite and affable manner by the present ataman General Ilovaiskii. We dined with him after having had the use of his carriage. At our departure, we naturally thanked him for his kindness. This drew forth a compliment to ourselves, but what was of more consequence, to the British nation. 'Gentlemen,' he replied, 'my late worthy and distinguished predecessor Count Platof, after his visit to London in 1814, only ceased to speak with the highest encomiums and the most enthusiastic feelings of gratitude to the British nation when he ceased to exist. I am sorry at your short stay in Novo-Therkask, as it prevents me showing you those attentions which Platof, had he been in life, would gladly have done.'"—Vol. II. p. 265.]

† "A verst (by land) from the fort of Rostof is a large Armenian town called Nakitchivan, after the ancient town of that name. We spent the evening in looking over it. They affirmed that it contains 1500 families. It has four churches, and two very large bazaars, which are very much crowded, and have great appearance of industry. We had a letter to one of the principal inhabitants, who had the rank of colonel, and whose son was one of Mr André's pupils (of Rostof), and our interpreter. His name was Abraamof. I found that Armenians usually expressed their names in this manner, from the Christian names of their parents, yet with the termination in *of*, which is a mark of gentility. This man had two sons in the Russian navy, and possessed the reputation of great wealth. He knew Lazarof, who sold Orlof the great diamond; and described in strong terms the misery and anxiety the Armenian had felt while it remained in his possession. His house was well furnished, and had a billiard-table, and many other European luxuries: all, however, sat cross-legged, except the master, whose dress also was something after the European mode. He had several curious sabres and poignards richly ornamented, which he exhibited with much pride. He said himself that the greater part of his fellow-townsmen had emigrated from the Crimea during the disturbances there; that they had this situation given them, and a charter, by which they had the same privileges as their countrymen at Astrachan. The principal trade of the town is in leather. The women are almost all veiled, but those we caught a glimpse of were very beautiful. Their veils were very carelessly disposed, and they betrayed no timidity. The men are also handsome; but they have a Jewish expression in their countenance. The Russians declare they have all a natural unpleasant odour, like that we attribute to the Jews. They dislike them greatly, and have a proverb—'Two Jews equal one Armenian; two Armenians one Greek; two Greeks one devil.' The Armenians, it is well known, are a very favoured sect by the Russian government, and many of the noblest families have a mixture of their blood. Of these are Dolgorucky and Bagrathion. Joan the First gave the title of Knæs to great numbers of Armenians, and permitted to all a free trade and settlement, with full liberty of worship, and even of making their processions openly. They have a magnificent church in Petersburg, and many in Astrachan and Casan. Their enterprise and activity are well known. Mr Anderson of Petersburg told me he knew one who had been twice to Bassora, and once to Sarmaeand and Tibet. I asked Abraamof if such journies were common, and if they could take a European with them as their servant, or in any other disguise. He answered both these questions in the affirmative. He himself had been in Georgia, and many parts of Turkey, but never farther. We observed several Mahometans, at least persons in green turbans, which no Armenian would wear."—Heber's *MS. Journal.*

As the green turban is a mark of high distinction in Turkey,

Its inhabitants were derived from the Crimea. They had about four hundred shops, which were all placed in one great covered building, after the manner of those in Moscow. The towns near the mouths of the Don present the traveller with a most novel and interesting picture of society. He encounters half a dozen different nations and languages in the same number of minutes; and each nation in its peculiar dress. As we walked up to the Armenian settlement, we beheld Tartars, Turks, Greeks, Cossacks, Russians, Italians, Calmucks, and Armenians, which, together with our English party, formed a representation of the costume of nine different nations within the compass of a quarter of an English mile. The Tartars were fishing in the river, or driving cattle towards the town; the Turks were smoking in their coffee-houses; the Greeks, a bustling race, were walking about, telling lies, and bartering merchandise; the Cossacks were scampering in all directions on horseback; the Russians, as police-officers, were scratching their heads; the Italians were Venetian and Neapolitan sailors; the Calmucks jabbering with each other; the Armenians, both men and women, airing in droskies; and the English staring at them all. As the traveller approaches the Don, especially towards its embouchure, Tartars make their appearance in great numbers; and that race of men are seen from thence, westward, the whole way to the Dnieper, in all the towns by the Sea of Azof, in the Crimea, and throughout the dreary plains which lie to the north of the Peninsula.

All the south of Russia, from the Dnieper to the Volga, and even to the territories of the Kirgissian and Thibet Tartars, with all the north of the Crimea, is one flat uncultivated desolate waste, forming, as it were, a series of those deserts which go by the name of steppes. The very earliest adventurers from the civilised parts of Europe to these remote and barbarous regions, found the country exactly as it now appears. A very faithful description of its features occurs in the narrative of W. de Rubruquis, employed as a missionary about the middle of the thirteenth century. "We journied," says he, "towards the east, with no other objects in view than earth and sky, and occasionally the sea upon our right (which is called the Sea of Tanaïs), and moreover, the sepulchres of the Comani, which seemed about two leagues distant, constructed according to the mode of burial which characterised their ancestors."

What the land of the Comani was, is clearly ascertained by the voyage of the ambassador from Pope Innocent IV. to Tartary, in the year 1246, as taken out of the thirty-second book of the *Speculum Historiale* of *Vincentius Beluacensis*. "We journied through the country of the Comani, which is all flat, and has four great rivers. The first is called Neper (Borysthenes); the second is called Don (Tanaïs); the third is named Volga (Rha); the fourth is denominated Jaec (Rhymnus)." Thus, it appears that the Comani, the ancestors of the Cossacks, had established themselves as far to the westward as the Dnieper, before the middle of the thirteenth century; and considerable light is thrown upon a very obscure part of ancient geography by the documents thus afforded. W. de Rubruquis himself, in another passage of his itinerary, fixes their limits as reaching westward even to the Danube, and says, that the whole country, from that river to the Tanaïs, was inhabited by them. The western part was called Casaria, the country of the Cazars, Cassars, or Cossacks, as they are now called. Nothing can be more accurate than the account he has left of these vast solitudes, in which he says there is neither wood, nor mountain, nor stone.

The Tartars on the Sea of Azof are a small race of men, not so ugly as we have heard them described; but they disfigure themselves by pressing their ears forward with the lower rim of their caps, from their tenderest infancy: in consequence of which practice, their ears protrude from the sides of their heads, and front the spectator. Some of those who passed us at Nakhtshivan looked most frightfully wild, appearing in the rude, and perhaps primeval, dress of the first shepherds of the earth. Their bodies were almost naked: over their shoulders were loosely suspended the undressed hides of their sheep, each being fastened with a single loop in front. Upon their heads, and around their waists, they wore a covering of the same materials, and upon their feet sandals of linden bark. I have seen exactly such figures represented upon Greek vases, and in the sculpture of ancient Greece.*

Nakhtshivan offers an example of that enterprising spirit so characteristic of the Armenian merchants, when stimulated by the hope of gain. They are not naturally a lively race of men. They have almost the gravity of Turks, with the boorishness of the Dutch, insomuch, that it is a very common saying with European merchants in Constantinople, that "an Armenian expresses mirth as a bear dances." Yet when instigated by commercial speculations, they penetrate all countries, and overcome all obstacles, frequently making journies over land to India, and the most distant regions of the globe. Who but they, relying upon the promises of Russia, could have entertained the hope, and realised the expectation, that in a poor village on the Don, surrounded by immense deserts, they should establish a source of commerce and of wealth? Their commodities and manufactures, as far as we were enabled to judge of them, appeared to be Turkish, and of a nature to find a ready sale in Oxai and Tscherchaskoy. They supply all the fairs of the neighbouring provinces, which are the most extraordinary spectacles in Europe, because attended by persons from almost every nation upon earth. There is scarce a people, refined or barbarous, who have not their representatives at the fairs held along the Sea of Azof, and upon the Don, but particularly at the great fair of Nakhtshivan. The Hamaxobii of Herodotus then make their appearance exactly as they lived in the days of the historian, travelling in vehicles, the covering of which are tents by night, and tilts for their cars by day. Such moveable dwellings may be noticed in all the territories of the Tartars.

We entered the quarter in which the shops are stationed. It is a very lofty covered street, or cloister, surrounding a square, after the manner of the Palais Royal at Paris. Every trade had its peculiar place assigned, as in the Turkish bazaars of Constantinople; and, according to the rule observed in oriental bazaars, the floor of each shop was made level with the counter, the dealers sitting at work, as in Turkey, with their legs crossed under their bodies. The shops were all well stored, and a rapid sale was going on. Their owners, in many instances, were really Mahometans, who manufactured slippers, sandals, and boots, in coloured leather. Of other trades, we observed tobacconists, pipemakers, clothiers, linen-drapers, grocers, butchers, bakers, blacksmiths, silk-mercers, dealers in Indian shawls, &c. They make bread of a very superior quality; and, according to the Asiatic custom, it is publicly kneaded, and publicly baked, so that the whole process of preparing the most important article of their food is open to every one. The crowd passing before their shops resembled a masquerade, in which the costly embroidered vestments of rich Armenian merchants† were contrasted with the hides which covered the wild Tartars, the long pelisses of the Turks, the military but

and the Armenians of Nakhtshivan are under no fear of offending Mahometans, I suspect (for I noticed the same costume in the place), that they are worn merely on account of the freedom they enjoy.—*E. D. C.*

* Among the earthen vessels described and published at Naples, there is a costume of this kind upon the person of a male figure, who is delineated checking two furious horses.

† The costume of the Armenian women of Astrachan is the richest in Russia. It is surprising that they sustain the weight of their dress. The first, or inner robe, is of silk and gold; the second, of black velvet, heavily laden with gold and pearls. The third, or outer vest, is almost of massive gold, in ponderous embroidery, with large gold knobs, gold buttons, gold tassels, gold fringe, &c. &c. The turban is white, hangs over the left shoulder, and conceals the face, except the nose and eyes. The only hair disclosed is often false; two thick locks, one on each side, being brought in front of the ears.

simple garb of the Cossack, the uncouth uniform of the Russian police, and the greasy trappings of the Calmucks.

We visited a Turkish coffee-house, the scene of the most favourite recreation of the oriental nations. On the right hand as we entered, upon a raised floor, like the counters used by tailors, were squatted a number of the merchants of the establishment, leaning upon cushions, with long pipes, smoking, and drinking coffee. As we joined the party, we were presented, according to the usual custom, with lighted pipes (having tubes made of the wood of the cherry-tree, tipped with amber), a small cup of coffee, and a bit of wood of aloes, which they put into the bowl of each pipe, and which exhales a most refreshing and pleasant fragrance. In a corner of the apartment stood a vase, containing blossoms of an *iris*, called in England *flower-de-luce*. It served as a kind of sign to the box on which it was placed, in the lid of which was a small hole to receive the contributions of those who were expected to leave a trifle for the pipe and coffee they had used. Some Turks who were present, seemed absolutely breathing the fumes of tobacco. They inhaled large quantities of smoke upon their lungs; and after retaining it there till their features became distended with suppressed respiration, yielded back large curling volumes, as from a chimney, by their nostrils, their mouth, and their ears.*

According to Pallas, the origin of the Armenian establishment at Nakhtshivan was the emigration of the inhabitants of the Crimea, when Suwarof withdrew with the Russian troops, and peace was concluded with the Tartars. At that time, the most opulent Armenian mechanics and merchants, together with the major part of the Christian inhabitants, upon whom the whole of the productive industry and commerce of the Peninsula depended, left the Crimea late in the autumnal season. The empress ordered proper buildings and accommodations to be prepared for their reception upon the Don; but the Russian commissaries took special care to convey into their own pockets the money allowed to complete the work according to the intentions of their sovereign. When the Armenian colony arrived, they found nothing but a parcel of miserable huts, constructed in the most expeditious and wretched manner. These they have since converted into neat and comfortable houses, many of which are of limestone, and covered with tiles; in the manufacture of which, as well as of pottery in general, the inhabitants are very skilful. Other Armenian settlements, belonging to the same district of Rastof, are in the neighbourhood, and all of them in a flourishing state. The Armenians were much respected in the country; and their industry, sobriety, and good moral conduct, render them a most important acquisition to the empire. Their whole population, however, including persons of both sexes, and all the Armenian settlements in the district, did not amount to 8000.

Again embarking upon the Don, we proceeded from Nakhtshivan to the fortress of St Demetri Rastof, hardly a mile lower down the river.† It was a place of great importance when the Turkish frontier was nearer. The Don is here much broader and deeper; in consequence of which, the vessels from Woronetz, unfit to encounter the sea, are broken up, and their cargoes, the product of Russia, shipped on board lighters and small vessels, and sent to Taganrock, to load the vessels lying in the roads, off that place. The governor, both of Azof and Taganrock, resides at Rastof, although those places have each their superior resident officer, who is called commandant. Rastof is garrisoned by Russian troops. We found it in a deplorable state of neglect. The Cossacks of the Don claim the territory of the small tract upon which the fort is built, as well as of that on which have been founded the Armenian settlements in its vicinity. I could learn no other reason for this, than that they had the care of conducting the mail. Indeed, the generality of them seemed to consider their land as limited by a boundary between Oxai and Nakhtshivan. In an empire so little settled as that of Russia, whose southern frontier is continually advancing, by the encroachments daily made upon the territories of other nations, the limits of any particular province are not likely to continue long the same. Other travellers may possibly arrive, and find the whole race of Don Cossacks moved, and planted upon the sides of Mount Caucasus; and those of the Black Sea, the Tchernomorski, so lately carried from the Dnieper to the banks of the Kuban, and of whom we shall soon speak more diffusely, may then be found repelling the incursions of the Persians and Afghans upon the southern shores of the Caspian.

Continuing our delightful voyage with very favourable weather, we advanced towards Azof; and the consciousness of sailing with all Europe on our right hand, and all Asia on our left, did not fail to excite reflections very interesting at the moment—the refinement, the science, the commerce, the power, and the influence of the one; the sloth, the superstition, the effeminacy, the barbarism, and the ignorance of the other. One fact, at least, has been taught me in traversing Europe, almost the whole of which I have explored—that there exists nowhere a savage people as fixed inhabitants. Every part of Europe is civilised. If the Nagaic Tartar, the wandering Calmuck, and the nomade Laplander, be deemed savage, all of whom are a humane people, it should be observed, that they are peculiar to no particular territory, but lead, like the more savage gipsy, a vagrant life. It is a very common absurdity to hear nations remote from observation branded with the imputation of barbarism: yet the peasant of Ireland, the smuggler of England, and the *poissarde* of France, is altogether as unenlightened, more inhuman, and possesses more of savage ferocity, than either the Laplander, the Tartar, or the Calmuck. As for the agricultural Laplander, the mountaineer of Norway, and the inhabitants of the north of Sweden, there does not exist a better disposed or a more benevolent people.

One of our boatmen, a Cossack, speaking of a stanitza that was situated in a creek or turning of the river, made use of an expression which may perhaps afford the etymology of the name of a town in the very north of Britain. He said it was "*In verness*"—"*In the turning.*" It is certainly worthy of remark, that Inverness, pronounced exactly in the same manner, is also similarly situated with regard to the coast.

Several villages are scattered along the banks of this river, but they consist chiefly of wretched hovels, constructed of the reeds and flags which grow in the shallows of the Don; and with these objects only in view, the traveller is presented with scenery very accurately corresponding with the description given of the wigwams and the waters of America. Soon after we passed the fortress of Rastof, we were gratified by a retrospective view, which at once embraced the whole of the

* The Chinese, and other oriental nations, perforate the drum of their ears for this purpose. It is not, however, common for Turks to undergo that operation.

† Mr Heber performed a journey from Taganrock to Rastof by land. His observations concerning the latter place are therefore peculiarly appropriate, and serve to supply the deficiency of my own. "Here it is that the barks from Voronetz are broken up, and the goods embarked from Taganrock. We saw about sixty lighters lying in the river, many large enough to perform the voyage to Arabat. Some of these which we pointed out, they told us had made voyages all the way to Caffa. There is a large brewery, producing very detestable beer and porter. The distilleries are numerous, and, if we understood right, pay no duties, unless sent inland. The banks of the Don are covered above by vineyards, and below by stinking sudak, a large white fish, drying in the sun. Fish are caught in great abundance and variety. The principal kinds are beluga, sturgeon, sterlet, and sudak. There are also myriads of Prussian carp, which, with all the refuse fish, are heaped up in great dunghills among the black circular tents of the Calmucks. The Cossacks pay no duty on salt, if it be for their own consumption. The fortress is just above the town; it is extensive, but ill situated. In it is a small garrison, and a school kept by an old Frenchman of the name of André. He had about twenty pupils, who were taught French, German, writing, and geography. They were all very little boys. We had a letter to the master, and found an old man in a sheep-skin, which would have turned the stomach of a *Mushick*, sitting down to dinner with his flock."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

settlements on the northern side of the river, including Rastof, Nakhtshivan, and Oxai. Here the Don is divided by the channel which bears the name of The Dead Danaetz; and the high lands, on which these towns are stationed, continue to form the northern bank of that branch. We sailed along the current which preserves the proper name of the river, and which, after this separation, flows through very flat and marshy territory. The only objects which interrupted the uniformity of the landscape were those ancient sepulchres formerly alluded to. I endeavoured to delineate a very remarkable group of them, consisting of five tombs, much larger than the usual appearance of others near the river, and which, from time immemorial, have borne the appellation of The Five Brothers. They are upon the European side. If Ptolemy's position of the *flexion of the Tanaïs* could be reconciled with the site of that remarkable deviation of the river from its course which forms the Dead Danaetz, I should not hesitate in describing those tombs as the actual monuments to which he alludes under the name of the Altars of Alexander. The altars of the Greeks were called *altaria* by the Romans, *ab altitudine*, from their being raised high above the ground. In low flat countries, where there were no mountains or hills, they raised artificial ascents for their altars. But sacrifices were offered upon the sepulchres of the dead, as upon altars; and, consistently with this practice, Alexander *paid his vows*, and performed rites, upon the tombs of Achilles and of Ajax, when he invaded Asia, and landed upon the Plain of Troy; anointing with perfumes the *stelai* placed upon them, according to the custom of the age in which he lived. The same geographer places the Altars of Cæsar still nearer to the position of these tombs. To one or other of them they will probably hereafter be referred. In the meantime, until we have better knowledge of the country and its antiquities, we must leave their real history undecided.

Among the various races of men which dwell near the mouths of the Don and in the neighbourhood of Rastof, the Tartars are the most numerous. Many absurd reports were in circulation concerning the danger of venturing among them. At Rastof, in particular, we heard some fearful tales of robbers and the banditti of the steppes, but had every reason to believe that they were for the most part, if not wholly, without foundation.

The long expected sight of Azof at last presented itself before our eyes, making a very conspicuous and considerable appearance, and somewhat corresponding with the false ideas we had entertained of its importance. Its imaginary consequence, however, as a fortress, vanished the moment we arrived; for nothing can be more wretched and insignificant than the real character of the place itself. The figure it has made in the wars between Russia and Turkey has given it a place in our maps and gazetteers, although the meanest hamlet of Kamschatka might dispute its title to notice. A handful of troops, aided only by their bayonets, might take possession of it at any time. The garrison consists of a few worn-out Russian invalids. The works, if such they may be called, are abandoned to decay, and situated below the village; so that in the event of an attack, there are several heights which would command them. The village itself stands on a high ridge, upon whose lower extremity the fortress is situated. From these heights we had a view of the entrance of the Don into the Sea of Azof, and of Taganrock, which we could plainly discern across the water. The mines of the fortress were described as very extensive, and considerable excavations might be observed under the whole of the ramparts; but they make no use of them, and indeed were ignorant for what purpose many of them were originally designed. All that remains of the Turkish fortification is a part of a wall, now a mere ruin. They showed us an old rampart raised by Peter the Great, on the opposite side of the river, and used by him when he besieged the place.

As it has been always supposed that the ancient city of Tanaïs existed either on the site of Azof, or in its immediate vicinity, I was very particular in my inquiries concerning it, both among the officers and other inhabitants of the place. I also made such observations as the time allowed me would permit; but not a trace of any such city could be discovered, neither had there ever been observed, as a vestige of it, any of those remains which infallibly indicate the cities of the Greeks. Of these, broken pottery is the most usual, on account of its incorruptible nature, and which almost always serves to point out the locality of Grecian cities, even when medals and other marks of their topography have not been found. It is natural to conclude, that if the Greeks ever built a city on this branch of the Don, it stood upon its banks, and not at any distance from the water. But the site of Azof is the only spot near the river on which it was possible to build. The rest is all a swamp, even the reeds of which are annually inundated. To the east, south, and south-east, the interior of the country offers a parched and barren desert; the rest is all one vast morass, consisting of deep bogs and water. If, then, on the elevated soil which has afforded a foundation to the fortress and present village of Azof, it be presumed that such a city as Tanaïs once stood, is it possible that, in the immense excavations which the moderns have carried on from time to time, in the formation, the reparation, and the destruction of Azof, some relic of antiquity, either of medals, weapons, vases, or sepulchres, would not have been discovered?—yet, in no instance of such works, or at any other period, has there ever been observed a single trace of the existence of any former settlement, except that which was made there by the Turks. Some of the senior officers, who were well informed of every thing that had occurred there since the time of Peter the Great, and, among others, the commandant, declared that nothing had ever been found of such a description, and that in all the country about the place there was no sign of the existence of any former city. About fifteen years ago, some coins were found upon the shore of the Sea of Azof, farther to the westward; but the characters upon these coins were described to us as Indian, or Chinese; probably they were Tartarian, or Turkish. If there ever did exist such a city as Tanaïs, I should expect to find the traces of it at the extremity of that northern embouchure of the Don which I have before mentioned as bearing the very name the Greeks gave to the city, with the slightest variation of orthography, in the appellation Tdanaets or Danaetz. It is a channel of the river which I had not an opportunity of exploring. Perhaps some future traveller will meet with more success in this particular inquiry.

The inhabitants of Azof amount to a small number, including the garrison. There are not more than fifty houses in the whole settlement. The officers quartered there complained, as well they might, of their solitary and secluded state of life. Exiled from all commerce with mankind, because detested even by the nations around them, and without a single comfort to render human existence supportable, the joy our arrival diffused may be easily imagined. "None," said the old commandant, as he approached the shore to welcome our arrival, "none but Englishmen would come to Azof, if they could avoid it." I had reason to entertain the same sentiments afterwards, but from very different motives. Nothing could be more insupportable than their curiosity, and the mode of showing what they intended as hospitality. No other employment was thought of than that of drinking, shouting, and dancing. Some symptoms at the same time were manifested, which considerably alarmed us, of using compulsory measures, in order to prevent our departure. Half a century might pass, during all which time its inhabitants would see no faces except those of their own garrison—consequently, the slightest variation of such monotony was hailed with transport, and the coming of a stranger considered as an event of more than usual importance. We found them lost in indolence and wretchedness, badly supplied with provisions, and destitute even of wholesome water. The suspicious inquiries, and insidious artifices, commonly practised by Russians in their reception of foreigners, were for once laid aside, and in their place

were substituted boisterous greetings, and the most troublesome importunities. Our appearance at this time was certainly rather calculated to excite curiosity. We had not less than four large marmots living constantly in the carriage, whose ravages were visibly displayed in all parts of its lining; for there is hardly any thing which these animals will not endeavour to devour. Our interpreter, a Greek, the sallowest of his race, wore a strange dress, in which the various habits of Russians, Cossacks, Tartars, and tribes of his own nation, were singularly blended, while our wardrobe, scarcely less remarkable, betrayed evident marks of the casualties and disasters of a long journey. In addition to these, were books filled with plants for our herbary, minerals, stuffed birds and quadrupeds, boxes of insects, thermometers, pots, kettles, half a cheese, and a vinegar cask. The soldiers of the garrison seemed more astonished and amused by the appearance of the marmots than by any thing else; and the marmots, participating equal surprise on seeing them, set up their loud and shrill whistle whenever they approached. A concert and supper were prepared for us in the evening, and a veteran officer, General Pekin, seventy-three years of age, was brought in a chair to see the two Englishmen. He had been celebrated both in the Prussian and Russian service, and lived upon a pension at Azof. This venerable soldier expressed himself so much rejoiced at seeing us, that, in spite of his years and infirmities, making one of the officers stand up with him, he insisted upon exhibiting the Russian national dance.

The contrast which has been before made between a Cossack and a Russian, appeared very striking in this voyage down the river from Oxai to Azof. In the course of a single day, we breakfasted with one people, and were compelled to sup with another—I say compelled, because the consequence of refusing such invitations are very serious in this country, especially if they come from petty officers of the Russian army, who have it always in their power, and generally in their inclination, to embarrass and impede a traveller. The distance between the two places does not exceed forty-five versts. We left the Cossacks with sorrow, and full of gratitude for the politeness and liberal hospitality we had experienced; and the very sight of a Russian, under such impressions, was doubly revolting. It may be conceived, then, what our feelings were, when, as we landed at Azof, an impertinent young officer, belonging to the garrison, inquired what could have been our inducement for venturing among so ferocious a people as the Cossacks. I endeavoured to get rid of the question, by asking another. "Do you," said I, "never visit them?" "Never!" said he: "we consider them as so many wild beasts. It is true, they are rich; but God alone knows what they do with their money, or how they obtain it—we never see any of it." My companion could not refrain from replying; and said, with some indignation, to the young officer, who had addressed us in French, "You shall hear how they obtain it; and what they do with it; and why you never see any of it. They are industrious merchants, and derive wealth by commerce—they are good husbands and fathers, providing for their families, and educating their children; and you never see all this, because, as you confess, you never visit them."

We succeeded, with great difficulty, in obtaining leave to quit the place on the following day. General Pekin lent us his assistance; and it was owing chiefly to his interest that twenty soldiers were ordered to attend by daybreak, and assist in towing the boat against the current, as it was necessary to re-ascend a part of the river, and proceed towards the sea by one of the mouths through which the Don disembogues itself, nearer to Taganrock than that branch of it on which Azof is situated. We took leave of our boisterous entertainers soon after midnight, most of whom were by this time more than "half seas over;" and in order to secure our retreat, we determined to pass the night in the boat. It was still dark, and dreadfully tempestuous. A thunderstorm came on, and the wind blew with the fury of a hurricane. As we passed the sentinels to go towards the river, vivid flashes of lightning disclosed to us, at intervals, our carriage tossed about in the boat, as if in a gale at sea. We got on board, however, and presently such a deluge of rain ensued, that we were glad to seek shelter with the marmots, whose natural somnolency was not proof against such violent concussions, and who were thrusting their noses between the blinds of the windows. I never experienced such a tempest. During all the rest of the night, the water seemed to descend as from a cataract, beating through the very roof of the carriage, and entering by every crevice. As the day dawned, the rain ceased to fall; but the wind continued as before. Our servant arrived from the fortress, having succeeded in mustering the soldiers. We encouraged them by liberal offers, and had the satisfaction to find, that although our boat's motion was hardly progressive against the united force of the wind and tide, we were actually leaving Azof.

After a long and very obstinate struggle, in which our boatmen were nearly exhausted, we at last succeeded in reaching that branch of the river through which we were to steer with the tide towards the sea. It is called the Kalancha. Here we rewarded and dismissed our assistants from the garrison, hoisted our canvass, and, falling very rapidly down the current, sailed into the Mæotis. The mouths of the Don are thirteen in number. In other respects, this river, by its shallows and islets, its periodical inundations, its rapidity, and rolling eddies, perturbed by slime and mud, its vegetable and animal productions, bears, as has been before remarked, a most striking resemblance to the Nile. The inhabitants of all this part of the Sea of Azof maintain that its waters annually diminish. A remarkable phenomenon occurs during particular seasons, which offers a very forcible proof of the veracity of the Sacred Scriptures. During violent east winds, the sea retires in so remarkable a manner, that the people of Taganrock are able to effect a passage on dry land to the opposite coast, a distance of twenty versts [rather less than fourteen miles]; but when the wind changes, which it sometimes does very suddenly, the waters return with such rapidity to their wonted bed, that many lives are lost. In this manner also small vessels are stranded.* We saw the wrecks of two, which had cast anchor in good soundings near the coast, but were unexpectedly swamped upon the sands. The east wind often sets in with great vehemence, and continues for several weeks. They have also frequent gales from the west, but very rarely a wind due north, and hardly ever an instance in which it blows from the south. This last circumstance has been attributed to the mountainous ridge of Caucasus, which intercepts the winds from that quarter. The sea is so shallow near Taganrock, that ships performing quarantine lie off at a distance of fifteen versts [ten miles], and vessels, drawing from eight to ten feet of water, cannot approach nearer to the town to take in their lading.

The elevated situation on which Taganrock is built, rendered it visible to us from the moment we entered the Sea of Azof. The wind, however, began to fail, and it was night before we reached the shore. Several of the inhabitants came down upon our arrival; and being afterwards provided with a tolerable set of apartments, we established ourselves for a few days, to prepare for our journey through Kuban Tartary.

* "The merchandise brought from Voronetz comes down to Rastoff in barks which will not bear the sea, but are broken up there. Their cargoes are again embarked in lighters, which convey them to Taganrog, and to the ships in the road. As the wind changes to the east, and the water grows shallower, they get farther and farther out to sea, and are often obliged to sail without having completed their cargo. This singular kind of monsoon takes place almost every year after midsummer. The governor said it seldom failed. Storms are not uncommon; and the navigation is considered as very unsafe, by reason of the numerous shoals, and the want of shelter."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

I have followed Mr Heber's orthography in the names of places, whenever an extract is given from his journal; not deeming it lawful to subject so accurate a writer to any rules which I may have laid down for myself, and to which, perhaps, I have not always adhered.

CHAPTER XV.

EUROPEAN AND ASIATIC SHORES OF THE SEA OF AZOF.

TAGANROCK is situated on the cliff of a very lofty promontory, commanding an extensive prospect of the Sea of Azof, and all the European coast to the mouths of the Don. Azof itself is visible in fair weather, from the heights of the citadel. At present, the number of inhabitants does not exceed 5000. The water, as in the Don, is very unwholesome when the winds carry off the salt water; but when a current sets in from the sea, it is more salutary. It certainly was not one of the wisest plans of Peter the Great when he proposed to found the capital of his empire in a place so disadvantageously situated. The water near it is so shallow, that no haven could possibly have been constructed, except by forming canals at an expense beyond all calculation. The ships now at quarantine lie off at a distance of ten miles, and all vessels, drawing from eight to ten feet water, can only approach within fifteen versts of the town. Taganrock formerly contained 70,000 inhabitants; but in consequence of a capitulation made with the Turks, it was entirely razed. Its revival may bear date from the establishment of the Armenian colony at Nakhtshivan. At present, all the best houses are in its suburbs. The fortress contains a miserable village, full of ruins, exhibiting at the same time traces of very considerable works, which have been entirely abandoned. The inhabitants entertain hopes that the emperor will visit and inspect the place, and that it will then become a town of the first importance in the empire. There is not any situation in the south of Russia more favourable for commerce, were it not for the want of water. Ships from the Black Sea find here, in readiness for embarkation, all the produce of Siberia, with the caviare, and other commodities of Astrachan, whereas at Cherson and Odessa they have to wait for lading after their arrival. But it is only during three months in the year that commerce can be carried on at Taganrock. In winter the sea is frozen, so that sledges pass upon the ice to Azof. During the short season of their commerce, the rent of a single warehouse upon the shore is estimated at 400 roubles. As soon as the first ships make their appearance from the Black Sea, the waggons from the interior begin to arrive.* These ships undergo a quarantine of forty days, during all which time the caravans continue to increase, and before the end of the quarantine, no less than 6000 waggons occupy all the plains below the town. Of this number, 3000 arrive annually from the Ukraine.

Taganrock has three fairs in the year—the first upon the 1st of May, the second, and principal fair, upon the 10th of August, and the third upon the 18th of November. The quantity of fish taken in the Sea of Azof is truly astonishing, and these are sent, in a dried state, over all the south of Russia.* They receive fruit from Turkey, such as figs, raisins, and oranges; also Greek wines from the Archipelago, with incense, coffee, silks, shawls, tobacco, and precious stones. Copper comes to them from Trebisond, but of a very inferior quality, and is all sent to Moscow. Among their principal exports are caviare, butter, leather, tallow, corn, furs, canvass, rigging, linen, wool, hemp, and iron, of which last article above 1,000,000 pouds† were exported during the year in which we visited the place. Their canvass is very bad. The copper of Siberia is not brought to Taganrock, as Moscow receives the whole produce of those mines. Yet the greatest advantage which the town enjoys is in being the deposit of Siberian productions. From Orenburg they receive tallow, furs, and iron, which, with the caviare of Astrachan, has only the short passage by land which intervenes between Zaritzin on the Volga, and the Don, a distance of forty English miles,‡ where Peter the Great projected a canal, and which it was Paul's intention to have completed. A draught of the intended communication between the Euxine and the Caspian Sea, by means of this canal, was first published by Perry, the English engineer, who was employed by Peter for the undertaking. That is not the least interesting part of Perry's narrative which relates the conduct of the Russian government towards him, because it shows the false glare which played about the greatest sovereign they ever had. Russia was, and is, and ever will be, that point in the great circle of society, where the extremes of meanness and magnificence unite. Peter the Great shuffling with his engineer, to evade the payment of a few roubles, is the faithful archetype of all the tsars, tsarinas, princes, and nobles of the empire, who would not scruple to rob their own *valet de chambre*, actuated by the same spirit which induced their heroine Dashkof, after losing thirty roubles at cards, to send thirty of the Royal Academy's almanacks by way of payment. They are a people who cannot be duly appreciated, excepting by those who have not only actually resided among them, but who have seen them when removed from intercourse with civilised nations, and divested of that external varnish so forcibly alluded to by the lord-lieutenant of the county of Wasa, in the extract annexed to a former page of this work. Perry hardly expected to meet with credit, when he gave his humble representation of the hardship he sustained, inasmuch as it affected the integrity of so lofty an individual; but further acquaintance with the country has long reconciled his simple narrative with all our notions of the people.§ An Englishman

* "From November to March the sea is frozen, and navigation seldom safe earlier than April. As soon as the ice is supposed to have passed, a small vessel is sent from Taganrog to Kertch (in the Crimea), and *vice versa*. After this signal, the navigation commences. From April to midsummer a southwest wind prevails very steadily, which greatly increases the depth of water, and favours the arrival of vessels. About midsummer, the water is generally deepest, and the sea crowded with small vessels. The harbour admits but few. Vessels may then lie tolerably near the shore; at other times, ships of two hundred tons are compelled to lie in the open sea, fifteen versts (ten miles) from the shore. In autumn, the Sea of Azof is often no more than fourteen feet at its greatest depth. From Taganrog to Azof is a shoal, or continuation of shoals, with hardly seven feet water, and in some places only five. The number of vessels is generally from six to seven thousand. Of these, about 150, or 200, are small craft from Trebizond and Sinope, which bring *nardek*, a marmalade of grapes, and *beckmiss*, a sirup made from various fruits by boiling them with honey. Raisins of the sun are also brought in great quantities. All these are used in the distilleries. Since the destruction of the vineyards, by the late hard winters, the beckmiss has become more necessary. The spirit thus produced is sold all over the empire as French brandy. The Greeks of the Archipelago bring chiefly wine of a very poor sort, which is also used in the distilleries. Of these Greeks, about one-third carry the Russian flag; but, as our friend D—— said (a merchant who resided here), '*Mauvais Russe, Mauvais Pavillon.*' They are of very bad character, and very poor. Any Greek who would purchase a house and land, became at once a Russian subject, and enjoyed their protection. The real Russian traders are very few. The European traders were Italian, Ragusan, Austrian, and Dalmatian; and in 1805 a few French, but under English colours, and with Maltese crews. These bring French wine, and German and English cloth. They carry back fish and iron."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

* "In winter the greatest fishery is carried on. Holes are made in the ice, at small distances, and the net passed under from each of these to the next in succession, by means of a pole, until a large tract is enclosed. Christmas is consequently as busy a time as midsummer, and a mild winter is ruinous."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

† A poud equals thirty-six pounds of English weight; but some writers, among others the translator of Pallas's Travels through the South of Russia, &c., state it as equal to forty.

‡ The canal of communication between the Volga and the Don, according to Perry, would have been 140 versts, because it would have followed the course of two other small rivers—the Lavla, which falls into the Don, and the Camishinka, which falls into the Volga—but the section for the canal would not much exceed two miles. "Upon these small rivers," says Perry, "sluices were to be placed, to make them navigable, and a canal of nearly four Russian miles (equal to 2½ miles English) to be cut through the dry land, where the said rivers come nearest together." A work like this would not long be in agitation in England.

§ "In the meantime, his lordship (Apraxin, the Lord-Chamberlain), upon his return to Moscow, informed me that he had orders from the czar *to pay me my arrears*, and he gave directions to his deputy to bring in the account of what was due to me, so

will probably pause before he contracts for employment with any future potentate of Russia. The canal has never been accomplished, neither is it likely to be so, without the aid of talents, which, being exotic, the Russian government may find it difficult to procure.

The Calmucks form very large settlements in the neighbourhood of Taganrock. Their camps were numerous at the time of our visit; and both Calmuck men and women were seen galloping their horses through the streets of the town, or lounging in the public places. Calmuck women ride better than the men. A male Calmuck on horseback looks as if he was intoxicated, and likely to fall off every instant, though he never loses his seat; but the women sit with more ease, and ride with extraordinary skill. The ceremony of marriage among the Calmucks is performed on horseback. A girl is first mounted, who rides off in full speed. Her lover pursues, and if he overtakes her, she becomes his wife, and the marriage is consummated upon the spot; after which she returns with him to his tent. But it sometimes happens that the woman does not wish to marry the person by whom she is pursued, in which case she will not suffer him to overtake her; and we were assured that no instance occurs of a Calmuck girl being thus caught, unless she has a partiality for her pursuer. If she dislikes him, she rides, to use the language of English sportsmen, "*neck or nothing*," until she has completely escaped, or until the pursuer's horse is tired out, leaving her at liberty to return, to be afterwards chased by some more favoured admirer.

We visited one of their largest camps near the town, and found the earth all around their tents covered by the mutilated carcases of dead rats, cats, dogs, suslics, and marmots. The limbs of horses were placed upon upright stakes, and drying in the sun. Their dogs are fierce and very numerous. A dreadful storm had happened during the preceding night; and we found the Calmucks in considerable distress, owing to the havoc which the tempest had made among their tents, some of which it had unroofed, and overthrown many. Their high priest, in a yellow dirty robe, was walking about to maintain order. To each tent was affixed a small flag-staff, the ensign of which was of scarlet linen, containing, in sacred characters, the written law of the Calmucks. By means of an interpreter, who accompanied us upon this occasion, we were told that such banners were always erected in times of any general calamity, as preventions of theft and intrusion upon each other's property. Most of the flags we examined were torn, and others so much effaced by use, that we could only discern some of the written characters; yet all were sufficiently perfect to convince us of the extraordinary fact, that they were manuscripts, beautifully written upon coloured linen. It was therefore highly desirable to procure one of these interesting documents; and we ultimately succeeded, although the acquisition was made with considerable difficulty. At first they would not suffer us even to touch them; but being told that we were strangers in the land, that we came from very distant western countries, and that we were not subjects of Russia, they entered into consultation with each other; the result of which was, that if we would pay the priest for the trouble of transcribing, a *fac simile* of one of the banners used in the camp should be brought to our quarters in Taganrock. This manuscript, fairly written on scarlet linen, was accordingly brought, in a very solemn embassy, and with many curious forms of presentation, by a party of the elder Calmucks, headed by their priest, the whole party being in their best dresses. I had been absent, and, upon my return, found these strange-looking people sitting upon the bare earth, in the courtyard of the house where we lodged. As I drew near, the priest, in a kind of yellow frock, made a long speech, the substance of which was to inform me, that their law, esteemed sacred, had never been before suffered to pass from their hands; but as they were assured we were great princes, who travelled about to see the world, and gather instructions for our own people, they had ventured to consign the consecrated code to our use. They moreover desired us to observe, that the character in which it was written was also sacred, on which account they had also brought a specimen of the vulgar character in daily use among them. Their sacred characters, like those of Europeans, read from left to right, and are of the highest antiquity—these are used in all writings which concern the Calmuck law. The vulgar characters, such as they use in their correspondence and the common concerns of life, are read from the top to the bottom, and are placed in columns. I have used every endeavour, but in vain, since my return to England, to get this curious manuscript translated, nor has it been as yet decided in what language it is written. A gentleman of Taganrock, Mr Kovalensky, from whom we experienced many other acts of kindness, was our interpreter upon this occasion. He spoke the Calmuck language with great fluency, and said it was by no means difficult to acquire. It is frequently used in Astrachan, and throughout all the territory of Bochârâ, the inhabitants of which are principally Calmucks. I had an opportunity of seeing some who had traversed those remote and almost impenetrable regions. When I questioned them with regard to Sarmacand, its once celebrated capital, they described it as possessing many remains of former magnificence. Doubtless it also contains many curious manuscripts, as the Calmucks are so well versed in the art of writing, and hold certain of their manuscripts even in veneration. They preserve, like all other oriental nations, many traditions respecting Alexander. Such, in addition to my former observations, is all the information I am able to afford concerning this remarkable people, the Hippophagi of Pliny and the more ancient historians. Their number in the Russian empire has diminished since the establishment of provincial governments and the division of lands, owing to their being more confined to limited situations. Frequent attempts have been made, and are daily making, to induce them to form a regular settlement. Like all nomade tribes, particularly Laplanders and gipsies, they are so much accustomed to an uncontrolled and vagrant life, that nothing but extreme indigence can compel them to cultivate land, and reside in any fixed habitation.

The country near Taganrock is a continuation of those steppes which I have so often described, affording pasture to several thousand cattle. It abounds also with swarms of the little quadruped before mentioned, under the name of suslic. Near to the town are small plantations of trees, and particularly some fine oaks, which the late commandant planted, and which flourish with other large trees near the shore. We also observed crab-trees, and the plant from which the Spanish liquorice * is obtained, in full bloom, the root of which was full of juice, and had a very high flavour. The inhabitants of Taganrock avoid planting trees close to their dwellings, on account of the swarms of mosquitoes which would be thereby harboured.

The diversity of nations observable in the various inhabitants of Taganrock is altogether without example. Every street resembles a masquerade. I counted at one time the individuals of fifteen different countries assembled together, all of whom were not more remarkably distinguished by their respective dresses and habits, than by the harmony and friendship which existed among them. No one seemed to regard the other as a stranger. In their societies and intermarriages, each individual preserves his mode of dress, and exercises his rule of worship, without making the smallest sacrifice to etiquette, by any alteration in his national habits, or giving the slightest offence to the parties with whom he is connected. Even the common disputes and petty quarrels, so frequent in the markets of large commercial

that *I thought myself now sure of my money;* but the next time I waited upon his lordship, in discourse he told me that his majesty was so taken up with the affairs of the army in Poland, that it would perhaps be a long time before he would come again to Moscow, and have leisure to go and view the place, and to give his orders, &c., and *pleasantly asked me what I would do with myself in the meantime.*—PERRY'S *State of Russia*, p. 19.

* *Glycyrrhiza glabra.*

towns, appeared unknown to the motley tribe who peopled this place; yet Babel itself could hardly have witnessed greater variety of language. The fifteen nations, whose representatives I observed at one time gathered together, were as follow:—

1. Russians,	9. French,
2. Greeks,	10. English,
3. Armenians,	11. Turks,
4. Nagay Tartars * (*Hamaxobii*),	12. Italians,
5. Calmucks (*Hippophagi*),	13. Malo-Russians,
6. Cossacks,	14. Prussians,
7. Germans,	15. Hungarians.
8. Poles,	

If the commerce of Taganrock should experience any considerable increase, we may reasonably conclude, from the present view of its inhabitants, that almost every nation upon earth will have its agent there.†

The shores of the Sea of Azof, from the commerce carried on by the Greeks in the Euxine and Palus Mæotis, bring the traveller so near to what may be deemed classic land, that an inquiry after antiquities was not neglected. We could not hear, however, that any thing worthy of notice had ever been discovered. Tumuli, so often before mentioned, abound in all the steppes; and in working the cliffs for the establishment of a magazine or storehouse, where one of these tumuli had been raised, they found in the sandy soil, of which it consisted, an arched vault, shaped like an oven, constructed of very large square bricks, and paved, in a style of most exquisite workmanship, with the same materials. If any thing was discovered by the workmen who made the excavation, it was concealed, for they pretend that its contents were unobserved or disregarded. In all probability something of value was removed from the sepulchre, as will appear by the description hereafter given of a similar tomb, opened on the Asiatic side of the Cimmerian Bosporus. Such vaulted sepulchres seem to render trivial the notions which have lately been entertained and published respecting the antiquity of arches. The tumuli in which such appearances have been discovered cannot be considered as posterior to the time of Alexander, if they were not equal in antiquity to the foundation of the Macedonian empire.

News arrived, while we remained in Taganrock, that the Cossacks of the Black Sea, or, as they are called, Tchernomorski, inhabiting Kuban Tartary, had crossed the Kuban with a considerable reinforcement under General Draskovitz, a Sclavonian officer in the Russian service, and made war upon the Circassians, in order to be revenged for injuries sustained in consequence of the constant plunder carried on by that people in their territory. We had long entertained a desire of crossing the deserts of Kuban, with a view to reach the districts which lie at the foot of Mount Caucasus, and, if possible, gratify our curiosity by a sight of the Circassians in their own country, whose personal endowments are almost proverbial. A favourable opportunity seemed now to present itself; but even the Don Cossacks had cautioned us against their brethren of Kuban, whom they described as a lawless set of banditti: and our friends in Taganrock considered the undertaking hazardous in the extreme. Yet the experience which had so often taught us that rumoured perils disappear when approached, and, above all, the desire of traversing an unknown tract of land, fortified us for the undertaking. On the evening of the 3d July, having placed our carriage in a wretched flat-bottomed vessel, more like a saucer in shape than a boat, we ventured on the waves and shallows of the Sea of Azof. The first part of our voyage was as pleasant and tranquil as we could wish; but having sailed through all the Turkish fleet of merchant ships at quarantine, it blew, as night came on, a gale upon our quarter. Our little boat, heavily laden, with its enormous sail very ill managed, seemed all at once at the mercy of the sea. The direction given to us was to steer south-east and by east. The only person on board who had the slightest notion of navigation, was a French refugee at the helm, who pretended he had been a sailor, and now held the guidance of our vessel. By mere accident I happened to notice the polar star, and its bearing proved that we were out of the course we had been directed to steer. Upon this, our Frenchman was asked if he had not a compass. "Oh yes! a very good one," he replied; but instead of using it, he had kept it safe locked in the chest upon which he sat. The compass being produced, it appeared that we were going due south; and to give an idea of the ignorance of the mariners in these waters, who are all of them coasters, it need only be mentioned, that our pilot, alarmed by his mistake, continued to turn the box containing the compass, in the hope of making the needle correspond with his wishes. Finding that all was wrong, an instantaneous and fearful confusion ensued. We let go the mainsail, and made an endeavour to lower it; but the rigging became hampered, and the gale, fast increasing, bore the gunnel down; and the carriage rolling very near over the lee-side, we shipped as much water as we could barely float with. Our first efforts were to secure the carriage from another roll, and, with all our force exerted, to hold the wheels; while our terrified boatmen, half out of their senses, were running over and against each other. I have heard veteran officers in the British navy declare, that they have encountered more real danger in what is called *boating*, than in doubling the Cape of Good Hope during the heaviest gales of wind; and I will venture to say, not one of them, had they been then present with us, would have deemed it possible to save our lives. We at last succeeded, however, in getting out a couple of anchors; and having lowered and lashed the carriage, so as to secure it from any violent motion, passed a night, beneath the canopy of heaven, in a state of terror, almost without hope. As morning broke, we discerned the Asiatic coast towards the south; but the gale continuing, we could not weigh our anchors before noon; when getting under weigh once more, we sailed with more moderate weather to the promontory of Chumburskaia, in Asia, where we landed our carriage.

The village of Chumburskaia consists of a few miserable wigwams, the inhabitants of which were busied hauling their nets when we arrived. So prodigious was the draught of fishes made at every haul, that the few waggons stationed with oxen to carry off the produce of the fishery were insufficient for its removal. A single haul was sometimes sufficient to fill two or three of these waggons; and the fishes thus taken were conveyed to a place for preparing them, belonging to the owners of the land; where, being first salted, they were exposed for drying in the sun. The variety caught was very great. We saw them draw out Prussian carp, pike, sturgeon, sterlet, a sort of large bream, fish which resembled perch, but of very considerable size, and those immense crawfish of which I have before spoken. The shore at this place was covered with a very fine gravel, composed of shells and sand. Swarms of toads and small serpents were crawling or running towards the sea; the water, though unwholesome, being so little impregnated with salt, that the inhabitants use it for drinking, and for all culinary purposes.

Proceeding towards the interior, the view is bounded by steppes, as on the European side, covered with tall luxuriant plants. Although the distance is small which

* "The Nagay Tartars begin to the west of Marinopol; they cultivate a good deal of corn, yet they dislike bread as an article of food. They extend from Marinopol to Perecop, along the coast of the Sea of Zabasche. Their tents differ from those of the Calmucks, as, being more clumsy, and never taken to pieces, they are carried about on cars. This usage they seem to have borrowed from the primitive Scythian population. The Nagay tribes train their camels to the yoke, for which they are ill qualified, and which practice is unknown among all the Mongul tribes in Asia."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

† [The town of Taganrog has increased in size since the period of Dr Clarke's visit, and its commerce has also slowly increased. It is reckoned to contain 12,000 inhabitants in summer during the time of its greatest traffic, but at other times not above 9000. In 1807 the towns of Naktshivan, Rostof, and Mariopole, with their jurisdictions, were placed under the administration of the governor of Taganrog.]

conveys the traveller from Europe to Asia, yet the variety of new objects which almost immediately present themselves, cannot be unobserved. Beetles of a gigantic size, locusts, various-coloured insects, large green lizards, some of which are twelve inches in length, all manifest a change. Having brought a letter to a Greek gentleman, whose commercial speculations, particularly in the fishery, had induced him to adopt a residence in these parts, we found him at Margaritovskaia, another small village four miles from Chumburskaia, and caused our carriage to be conveyed to his house. He was settled in a small colony of his own countrymen, the neatness of whose cottages plainly distinguished them from all the other inhabitants of that country. "I have retired to this place," said he, "to be somewhat removed from the shore, as the natives along the coast are not to be trusted." He gave us a supper of rice, milk, and pancakes, according to the custom of his country; and we should have felt comfortable in his little dwelling, had it not been for the disgusting appearance of toads, which continually entered, crawling about the floor. Reptiles, vermin, bad air, bad water, and bad people, are among the plagues which distinguish oriental territories; but the small district we traversed in this part of Asia, from the mouths of the Don to those of the Kuban, may vie in horrors with any other I have since seen. The roads at this season of the year (July) were certainly excellent, and the post very well supplied; but they were said to be full of danger, and certainly characterised by every unwholesome and filthy accompaniment.

CHAPTER XVI.

JOURNEY THROUGH KUBAN TARTARY TO THE FRONTIER OF CIRCASSIA.

The whole territory from the Sea of Azof to the Kuban, and thence following the course of that river towards its embouchure, is a continual desert, more desolate than the steppes on the European side of the Mæotis, in which a few huts, rudely constructed of reeds and narrow flags, and stationed at certain distances, serve to supply horses for the post. Such wretched hovels offer neither accommodation nor food. They are often destitute even of any thatched covering as a roof, and supply merely an enclosure, in which the horses remain their stated time, standing in mud or dung. The persons who have the care of them make their appearance, when the traveller arrives, from a hole in the ground; having burrowed, and formed a little subterraneous cave, in which they live, like the marmots, moles, and other tenants of the wilderness.

We left Margaritovskoy on the 5th of July, admiring the fine view that was presented of the Sea of Azof, and travelled towards the Ae, one of the several rivers mentioned by Ptolemy, in this part of Asiatic Sarmatia, and which it is difficult to identify with any of the ancient names enumerated by him. *Ae*, in the Tartar language, signifies *good*, and the name is said to have been applied to the river, because its banks afford a favourable pasture for sheep; but the water is brackish, and impregnated with salt.

During the first thirty-six versts [twenty-four miles] of this day's journey, we found Grecian or Malo-Russian inhabitants. Their number in this district does not exceed 700 persons; yet a full proof of their industry and superior importance, as tenants of the land, is offered in the fact of their affording to their landlord an average payment of no less a sum annually than 10,000 roubles. The boundary of their little territory is formed by the river Ae towards the south, and the Sea of Azof to the north. The river Ae separates them from a very different and very extraordinary race of men, whose history and country we are now prepared to consider; namely, the Tchernomorski, or Cossacks of the Black Sea; more dreadful tales of whom are told, to intimidate travellers, than even the misrepresentations circulated in Russia concerning their brethren, the Cossacks of the Don. We had been directed to augment our escort, and in consequence were always preceded by a troop of armed Cossack cavalry. It is true, the figures of those who composed the body of our own guard did not appear very conciliating; but we had never reason to complain either of their conduct or of their honesty.

The Tchernomorski are a brave, but rude and warlike people, possessing little of the refinement of civilised society, although much inward goodness of heart; and they are ready to show the greatest hospitality to strangers who solicit their aid. Their original appellation was Zaporogztzsi, according to the most exact orthography given to me by Mr Kovalensky of Taganrock; a term alluding to their former situation "beyond the cataracts" of the Dnieper, from the banks of which river they were removed by the late Empress Catherine to those of the Kuban, in order to repel the incursions of the Circassians and Tartars from the Turkish frontier. Their removal was originally planned by Potemkin, but did not take place until about nine years previous to our arrival in the country. Their society upon the Dnieper originally consisted of refugees and deserters from all nations, who had formed a settlement in the marshes of that river.* Storch affirms, that there was hardly a language in Europe but might be found in use among this singular people.

In consequence of the service they rendered to Russia in her last war with Turkey, Catherine, by a ukase of the 2d of June 1792, ceded to them the peninsula of Taman, and all the countries between the Kuban and the Sea of Azof, as far as the rivers Ae and Laba; an extent of territory comprehending upwards of 1000 square miles. They had also allotted to them a constitution in all respects similar to that of the Don Cossacks, and received the appellation of "Cossacks of the Black Sea." They were, moreover, allowed the privilege of choosing an ataman; but their numbers have considerably diminished. They could once bring into the field an army of 40,000 effective cavalry. At present, the number of troops which they are able to supply does not exceed 15,000. Upon their coming to settle in Kuban Tartary, it was first necessary to expel the original inhabitants, who were a tribe as ferocious and savage as the Circassians. Part of these were driven to the deserts of Nagay, and the steppes north of the Isthmus of the Crimea; the rest fled over the Kuban to Circassia, and became subject to the princes who inhabit Caucasus. At the time we traversed Kubau, the Tchernomorski occupied the whole country from the Ae to the Kuban, and from the Black Sea to the frontier of the Don Cossacks.

The Russians speak of them as a band of lawless banditti. We soon found they had been much misrepresented; although, among a people consisting of such various nations and characters, we certainly could not have travelled without the escort by which we were accompanied. The road, if the plain unaltered earth may admit of such an appellation, was covered with stragglers, either going to the scene of war, or coming from it. Their figure, dress, and manner, were unlike any thing seen in Europe; and however good the opi-

* "These men originally were deserters and vagabonds from all nations, who had taken refuge in the marshy islands of the Dnieper. At the foundation of Cherson, they were chased from their homes, and took shelter at the mouth of the Danube, still preserving their character of fishermen and pirates. Potemkin offering them pay and lands, they returned to the side of Russia, and did great service in the second Turkish war. They received as a reward the country newly conquered from the Kuban Tartars. They hold their lands by the same tenure, and enjoy nearly the same privileges, as the Don Cossacks. They are, however, much poorer, and more uncivilised, and never quit their country, where, indeed, they have sufficient employment. They receive no pay, except an allowance of rye, and dress themselves at their own expense, and in whatever colours they choose, without any regard to uniformity. The officers, for the most part, wear red boots, which is their only distinction. They deal largely in cattle, and have a barter of salt for corn with the Circassians. They are generally called thieves. We found them, however, very honest, where their point of honour was touched, very good natured, and, according to their scanty means, hospitable."—Heber's *MS Journal.*

nion may be which we still entertain of this people, it would be trusting too much to that opinion, to advise any traveller not to be prepared against the chance at least of danger, where the temptation to commit acts of hostility, and the power of doing so, exist in so great a degree. They do not resemble the Cossacks of the Don in habits, in disposition, or in any circumstance of external deportment. The Cossacks of the Don all wear the same uniform: those of the Black Sea any habit which may suit their caprice. The Don Cossack is mild, affable, and polite; the Black Sea Cossack is blunt, and even rude, from the boldness and hardihood of his manner. If poor, he is habited like a primeval shepherd, or the wildest mountaineer; at the same time having his head bald, except one long braided lock from the crown, which is tucked behind the right ear. If rich, he is very lavish in the costliness of his dress, being covered with gold, silver, velvet, and the richest silks and cloths of every variety of colour; but wearing at the same time short cropped hair, which gives to his head the appearance of the finest busts of the ancient Romans. The distinctive mark of a Black Sea Cossack, borne by the lower order among them, of a braided lock from the crown of the head, passing behind the right ear, is retained even by the officers, but concealed by the younger part of them, with very artful foppery, among their dark hair. They seemed ashamed to have it noticed, although, like a relic on the breast of a catholic, it was preserved even with religious veneration; and there was not one of them who would not sooner have parted with his life, than with this badge of the tribe to which he belonged. The custom is of Polish origin; but in this part of the world it serves like the sign among freemasons, and distinguishes the Tchernomorski Cossack from the Cossack of the Don, as well as from every other tribe of Cossacks in the Russian empire. The Tchernomorski are much more cheerful and noisy than the Don Cossacks; turbulent in their mirth; vehement in conversation; somewhat querulous; and, if not engaged in dispute, are generally laughing or singing. The Cossacks of the Don hold this people in little estimation, considering them as an inferior band of plunderers when in actual service. But it must be said, the Tchernomorski entertain the same sentiments with regard to them, making those remarks which the uneducated and lower class of English do with regard to foreigners; such as, that "one Cossack of the Black Sea is a match for any three of his neighbours on the Don." The Russian regards both with aversion, and affects to consider them beneath his notice and unworthy his society, for no other assignable reason than ignorance or envy. The Cossack is rich; the Russian poor. The Cossack is high minded; the Russian abject. The Cossack is for the most part clean in his person, honourable, valiant, often well informed, and possesses, with his loftiness of soul, a very noble stature; the Russian is generally filthy, unprincipled, dastardly, always ignorant, and rarely dignified by any elevation of mind or body.*

But it is proper to attend more closely to the detail of the journey. At thirty-six versts' distance from Margaritovskoy, we came to the river Ae, called Yea by the Turks, and Iéia by the Germans, a boundary of the territory possessed by the Tchernomorski. Just before we crossed this river, we passed a fortress of considerable size, rudely constructed of earth, and surmounted by a few pieces of artillery. This fortress was originally a dépôt of stores, and a barrier against the Tartars. It is still garrisoned. The commandant, as we changed horses at Aeskoy, gave us news of the war to which we were travelling. From him we learned that the allied army of Cossacks, Sclavonians, and Russians, had crossed the Kuban, and had taken several Circassian villages—that many Circassian princes had applied in person to the Tchernomorski for peace—that the Pacha of Anapa had announced his intention of acting as mediator, and of repairing to the Tchernomorski capital, Ekaterinedara. He cautioned us to be on our guard concerning the Tchernomorski, as the route would now be filled with deserters, and persons of every description from the army; and, above all things, he advised us to increase the number of our guard, lest treachery might be experienced from the members of our escort, from whom as much might be apprehended as from the Circassians.

We observed several sorts of game on this day's journey, particularly the wild turkey, the pheasant, some wild swans, and wild ducks; also a large sort of fowl as big as a capon. In the steppes we caught a very uncommon species of mole. To us it was entirely new, although perhaps it may have been the animal mentioned in the *Journal des Savans Voyageurs*, as known in Russia under the appellation of *slepez*.* It seemed totally blind; not having the smallest speck or mark of any eye or optic nerve. Its head was broad, and quite flat, like that of an otter; its under jaw armed by two very formidable fangs, with which, when caught, it gnashes and grates its upper teeth. It is to the highest degree fierce, and, for so small an animal, remarkably intimidating; for though it will not turn out of the way while on its march, it bites and tears whatever it encounters. It is of a pale ash colour, and, with the exception of the head, much like the common mole.

Passing the Ae, we entered the territory of the Tchernomorski; and proceeding about four miles farther, we arrived at Cherubinovskoy, a wretched village, built of reeds, and containing two or three paltry shops. As we journeyed on from this place, the post-houses were constructed exactly after the description given in the beginning of this chapter. They were totally destitute of any security from the weather, consisting only of a few bundles of reeds and flags, loosely put together, and liable to be scattered by the slightest wind. The wonder is, how they can possibly preserve their cattle in such places during the winter season, which is sometimes extremely severe. We observed several sledges for travelling over the snow, and in these the attendants of the relays had constructed their beds.

On the 6th of July we saw nothing but continued steppes, covered by beautiful and luxuriant flowers. Among the tallest and most showy appeared the dark blue blossoms of the *viper's bugloss*, or *echium altissimum* of Jacquiu, and *italicum* of Linnæus. The *statice trygonoïdes*, not known to Linnæus, grew in abundance, and is common over all Kuban Tartary; also those beautiful plants, *iris desertorum*, and *dianthus carthusianorum*. We were, of course, busied in making additions to our herbary, and the note subjoined will enumerate the principal part of our acquisition.† The mosquitoes began to increase, and were very troublesome. The heat at the same time was very great, being as high as 90 degrees of Fahrenheit, when estimated with the greatest caution, in the shade.

Throughout all this part of Kuban, a traveller with a light carriage may proceed at the rate of 130 English

* When Mr Heber was in this country, his friend, Mr Thornton, the companion of his travels, lost his gun, and they left Ekaterinedara, supposing it to be stolen, as travellers in Russia are constantly liable to thefts of every description. To their great surprise, however, when they arrived at Taman, the gun was brought to them. An express had been sent after them, who had travelled the whole distance from Ekaterinedara to Taman, to restore the gun to its owner, and the person employed to convey it refused to accept any reward for his labour. Such facts as these require no comment. The character of the people, and their superiority to the Russians in every qualification that can adorn human nature, is completely established.

* Gmelin considered it as an intermediate link between the mouse and the mole; for though, like the mole, it buries itself, yet its food is confined entirely to that which it finds on the soil.

† A new species of *calendula*; also of *ranunculus*, and *galega*, *crambe tartarica*, *cerinthe minor*, *antirrhinum genistifolium*, *anthemis millefoliata*, *lathyrus tuberosus*, *symphytum consolidum*, *salvia nemorosa*, *galium rubioïdes*, *phlomis tuberosa*, *xeranthemum annuum* in great abundance, *nigella damascena*, *astragalus tenuifolius*. Others, well known in Britain, were—*thalictrum minus* (lesser meadow rue), *agrostemma githago* (cockle), *tanacetum vulgare* (tansy), *ranunculus lingua* (great spear-wort), *cynoglossum officinale* (hound's-tongue), *trifolium arvense* (hair-foot's trefoil), *trifolium melilotus lutea*.

miles in a day. With our laden vehicle, notwithstanding the numerous delays occasioned by search for plants and animals, we performed seventy miles in the course of twelve hours. We passed several lakes, one of which, from its remarkable appellation, deserves notice: it was called *Bey's Eau* (*Prince's Water*), *eau* being pronounced exactly as by the French, and signifying the same thing. *Bey* is a very common oriental word for *a prince*. A village near this lake was called *Bey's eau koy*. We noticed also some corn-mills, worked by undershot wheels, and ancient tumuli, as usual, in the perspective. Among the birds, swallows appeared by far the most numerous. One vast plain was entirely covered by swarms of them, evidently assembling in preparation for a migratory flight to some other country. Wild swans, geese, and ducks, were in great numbers. But by much the most frequent objects were the tumuli; and, from their great number, I should have been inclined to suppose they were occasionally raised as marks of guidance across these immense plains during winter, when the ground is covered by snow; but whenever any one has been laid open, the appearance of a sepulchre puts the question of their origin beyond dispute, and the traveller is left to wonder and perplex himself in conjectures concerning the population which supplied the labour for raising these numerous vestiges of interment, as well as the bodies they served to contain. The number greatly increased as we drew near to the Kuban; and, in the last stage, before we reached that river, I counted ninety-one, all at once in view.

The whole of the soil in this part of the Tchernomorski territory is covered by fine pasture herbage, and supplies hay for all their cavalry and cattle.* In our route we frequently encountered parties returning from the war, who had been dismissed to their respective homes, or had thought proper to remove themselves. These were all armed similarly to our escort, and, according to the opinion of the commandant of the old mud fortress upon the Ae, when we entered their territory, were as much to be dreaded as the Circassians themselves. They passed us, however, very respectfully, probably on account of our number, which had been augmented from twelve to twenty. As for those of the Tchernomorski whom we found in the different post-houses, they really appeared as wild as American savages, having their bodies quite naked, except a sheep's hide cast across their shoulders, with the wool on the outside. They usually appeared lying among the grass, while the horses for the post were grazing around them, ready to be caught when wanted.

We now drew near to the Kuban, and had reached the last post-house before arriving at Ekaterinedara, when the view of the Caucasian mountains opened upon us, extending, in a craggy and mountainous ridge, from east to west. I endeavoured to recall a former impression made upon my mind in the approach to the Alps from Augsburg; and the recollection served to convince me, that the range of Mount Caucasus has neither the apparent altitude nor grandeur of the Alpine, whatever their relative heights may be.† Marshal Bïberstein, a celebrated Russian botanist and traveller, afterwards informed me, that he considered Mount Chat in Caucasus higher than Mont Blanc: it is certainly visible at the immense distance of 200 miles. The snowy summits of the Alps are seen for a day's journey before reaching them, glittering above the line of clouds collected near their bases; especially by a traveller who approaches the Tyrol, where they seem to rise up all at once like a wall from the plains of Suabia. To us, indeed, who had travelled so long in the flats of Russia, the Caucasian mountains were a new and very interesting sight. Our eyes were fatigued by the uniformity of perpetual plains; and even serene skies, to which we had been so long accustomed, were gladly exchanged for the refreshing winds of the hills, the frequent showers, and the rolling clouds, which always accompany them. Trees also began to appear, and the banks of the Kuban were covered with woods. The oak, so long a stranger, reared his venerable head; and the willow, the bramble, wild raspberries, blooming shrubs, and thick underwood, covered the ground, affording retreat to abundance of wild boars and deer. The last are often taken young, and kept as tame animals in the cottages of the country.

Ekaterinedara, or Catherine's Gift, the capital of the Tchernomorski Cossacks, makes a very extraordinary appearance. It has no resemblance to a town; but is rather a grove or forest of oaks, in which a number of straggling cottages, widely separated, are concealed not only from all general observation, but even from the view of each other. The inhabitants have cut down and cleared as many as they could; but the streets, if they may be so called, and the spaces between the houses, are covered with dwarf oaks, and thick branches of scions yet rising from the roots which are left in the earth. The antiquity of the tumuli which cover all this country may in some degree be proved even by the appearance of the oaks growing on them. We saw some trees, perhaps as old as any in the world, which were so situated. The inhabitants had dug into the tumuli, to form cellars for their ice and wine; and, in so doing, found several earthen vases, deposited with the skeletons which these sepulchres contained; but unfortunately they destroyed every thing they discovered. The air in this *metropolitan forest* is pestiferous, and the water of the place very unwholesome. Fevers, similar to those which prevail near the Pontine marshes, at Pæstum, and on the coast of Baia in Italy, afflict those who reside here. In the environs, however, the air is better; and perhaps, when the ground is cleared, so as to admit a free circulation, and thoroughly cultivated by the increase of gardens, the health of the inhabitants will be less injured; but from its damp situation, and the vicinity of extensive marshes on the Circassian side of the Kuban, Ekaterinedara is never likely to be a desirable place of residence. The very foundation of the city bore date only eight years previous to our arrival; so that it still had the appearance of a colony newly transported to the wildernesses of America, maintaining a struggle against all the obstacles opposed to it, from inhospitable natives, impenetrable woods, and an unwholesome climate. The houses of the inhabitants were neater than our best English cottages. Each owner possessed a large area before his door, to which an avenue of the finest oaks conducted; also an adjoining garden, in which we noticed the vine, the water-melon, and the cucumber. The sun-flower blooms spontaneously every where, without cultivation; and many plants found only in our greenhouses are the weeds of the plain. The climate, from a proximity to the mountains, is humid and cloudy, agitated by frequent and violent winds, with thunder and sudden tempestuous rains.*

In their new settlement, the Tchernomorski still display the same manners and mode of life which they practised before they migrated from the Dnieper. By this means the Circassians, and even those of the Russians who live among them or near them, are instructed in many domestic arts of comfort and cleanliness to

* "The cattle here are larger and finer than any where in Russia. There are no sheep, not even of the Asiatic breed. The Cossack horses are what would be called in England good galloways. Their masters vaunt very much their speed and hardiness. According to them, a moderately good horse will go sixty versts, or forty miles, at full speed, without stopping. They are seldom handsome."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

† [The highest peak of the Caucasus is Mount Elberous, nearly 17,000 feet above the level of the sea. It is considerably south of the range seen by Dr Clarke.]

* [Ekaterinodar remains pretty much in the condition described by Dr Clarke, being rather a large straggling village, filled with trees and gardens, than a town. It contains about 3000 inhabitants. The public establishments are a quarantine, a fortress, with a cathedral in it, and a prison. In the quarantine establishment an occasional commerce is carried on with the Circassians, who bring rye in exchange for salt. The prison is generally filled, as at the time of Clarke's visit, with unfortunate Circassian prisoners, waiting until their countrymen have captured as many Russians or Cossacks as are necessary for their exchange.—LYALL'S *Travels*, vol. I. 405.]

which they were before strangers. Celebrated as they justly are for their skill in horsemanship, they acknowledge themselves inferior in this respect to the Circassians, whose light bodies, lightly accoutred, on the fleetest horses in the world, outstrip them in the chase. Yet I know not a more interesting object than a Cossack of the Tchernomorski mounted and equipped for war. It is then only they may be said to exist, and in their native element; brandishing their long lances in the air, bending, turning, or halting suddenly when in full speed, with so much graceful attitude, and such natural dignity, that the horse and his rider seem as one animal.

The reins of government are entirely in the hands of the ataman and his officers. These wear the most theatrical and showy dresses which are known to any people in the whole world. Their breasts are covered with chains of gold and lace. Their sabre is Turkish, their boots of red or yellow-coloured leather, their cap of black velvet, ornamented with lace and silver chains, or fine black Tartarian wool, taken from lambs in an embryo state; and the waist bound with silken sashes, which support pistols of the most costly workmanship. A small whip, with a short leathern thong, is attached to their little finger. The lower extremity of their lance is supported by the right foot; and from the powder flask which hangs in front are suspended silver coins and other trinkets.

On the evening of our arrival, the ataman waited upon us with a party of officers. One of the best houses in the place had been previously allotted to our use, which they desired us to consider as our own, and declared themselves ready to render us any service in their power. The ataman then informed us, that the Pacha of Anapa, with several of the princes of Circassia, had crossed the Kuban, and pitched their tents on the northern side of the river, suing for peace with the Tchernomorski; that a considerable part of the Cossack army would march to give them a meeting in the morning, and adjust the preliminaries; and as the ceremony might amuse us, he very kindly offered to include us among the persons of his suite: to which proposal we readily assented.

The history of the war in which they had been so recently engaged, is as follows. The Circassians, in their nocturnal incursions, had for the last three years committed many depredations upon the territory of the Tchernomorski; not only stealing the cattle, but sometimes bearing off the inhabitants. The Tchernomorski applied to the emperor for permission to punish these marauders, and for a reinforcement. General Drascovitz was accordingly sent, with a party of troops and some artillery, into the Kuban. At five o'clock on the morning of Friday, June the 20th, the army, consisting of 4500 men, including two regiments of regulars, some pieces of artillery, and the chief part of the Cossack army stationed in and near Ekaterinedara, began to advance by crossing the river. This undertaking was sufficiently arduous to have daunted better disciplined troops. The Kuban is broad and very rapid; and a few canoes, with one flat-bottomed barge, was all the aid which could be procured for this purpose. General Drascovitz himself assured me he had never seen any thing equal to the spirit and alacrity with which the Cossack cavalry, who led the way, received the order to march. They plunged on horseback into the torrent, and swam to the opposite shore. The passage was begun, as I have stated, at five in the morning, and by four o'clock in the afternoon the whole army had crossed, which, considering the want of proper boats and other conveniences, and the great rapidity of the current, is wonderful. By nine o'clock in the same evening the attack was commenced. A small party, consisting only of eight of the Circassian guard, were surprised in the very onset of the march, of which two were taken, and the others fled to give the alarm. The first effective blow was struck by the Circassians, who attacked the advanced guard of the Cossack cavalry, taking eleven of the Cossack horses and a few prisoners. General Drascovitz then detached a body of Cossacks to reconnoitre, who found the Circassians in possession of a strong hold, and prepared for attack. These gave the Cossacks a very warm reception; but the general perceiving it, caused some pieces of artillery to bear upon his opponents. The noise of cannon had never before been heard in Circassia; the rocks of Caucasus repeated the dreadful uproar of the guns; and the natives, at the very sound, fled in all directions. The Russian army, rapidly advancing, burned and destroyed eight of the villages, took 8000 head of cattle, besides a quantity of arms and other valuables. The number of the dead on the side of the Circassians amounted to thirty-seven in one village; and nearly an equal slaughter took place in all the others. The Russians lost only ten Cossacks, who were made prisoners, but had not a man killed, and very few wounded. The number of the Circassian prisoners was not great; for so desperate was their valour, that they preferred being cut to pieces, rather than surrender. The first overtures for peace were made by the arrival of some deputies from the Circassians, demanding the reason of the war. The answer given by the Cossacks is curious, as it serves to call to mind similar laconic expressions in ancient times. "You have played your gambols," said they, "in our territory these three years; we therefore come for a little sport in yours." This answer being carried to the princes of the country, they came in great numbers to sue the Cossacks for quarter and peace. To aid this request, a scarcity of bread soon prevailed among the combined forces of Russians and Cossacks; and the water of the country being bad, they retreated gradually towards the Kuban, where they were met by the Pacha of Anapa, who, with a great retinue and much ceremony, came, in the name of the Turkish government, to intercede for the Circassians; offering himself, at the same time, a pledge for the security of their future conduct. To strengthen these assurances, he accompanied the Cossacks and Russians across the Kuban, and entered Ekaterinedara, but was not permitted to remain there, on account of the quarantine. He was suffered, however, to pitch his tent on the Cossack side of the Kuban, close to the river. From thence he passed again into Circassia, and assembling the princes of the country, made them take a solemn oath of peace and friendship with the Tchernomorski; but the latter, not being satisfied with the report of these proceedings, insisted that the same oath should be publicly repeated on their side of the river. It was for this purpose that the Pacha of Anapa had again returned, bringing with him the most powerful of the Circassian princes, who now waited upon the northern bank of the Kuban, to go through the required ceremony.

At nine o'clock on the following morning, the 8th of July, General Drascovitz sent his drosky, escorted by a party of armed Cossacks and an officer, to say the ataman was waiting for us to join his suite in the procession to the Pacha of Anapa's tent by the Kuban; and that many of the princes of Circassia were there, ready to take the oath of peace. We drove to head-quarters, and arrived as the grand cavalcade, consisting of the ataman with a numerous escort of Cossack officers, and delegates from all the troops of the Cossack army, were proceeding to the river side, distant only half a mile from the town. I never beheld so fine a sight. The dresses worn by the officers were more beautiful than the most magnificent theatres display, exhibiting every variety of colour and ornament; while their high-bred horses, glittering in embroidered housings, and prancing with flowing manes and tails, seemed conscious of the warlike dignity of their riders. Several Cossacks darted by us, on the fleetest coursers we had ever seen, to join the cavalcade. In front rode the ataman, bareheaded, in a dress of blue velvet, with sleeves and trousers of scarlet cloth, very richly embroidered. From his shoulders loosely fell a rich tunic, lined with blue silk, and fastened back by gold buttons. His boots, like those of all the other officers, were of red leather; and by his side was suspended a broad and costly sabre, in a sheath of red velvet, richly embossed with gold, and studded with turquoises. On each side of him rode a

party of his principal officers; and behind followed all the flower of the Cossack army, in most sumptuous dresses, curbing their foaming and neighing steeds. We were, by the ataman's orders, placed in the van of the procession; and soon arriving on the high grounds which form the northern bank of the Kuban, beheld the encampment of the Turks and Circassians, on a small flat, close to the water's edge. The pacha, surrounded by his attendants, was seated in his tent, smoking, with the awning drawn up on all sides. He was attended by a Turkish courier from the porte, his own dragoman or interpreter, and several of the most powerful Circassian princes, dressed in the savage and extraordinary habits worn by the different tribes of Mount Caucasus, some of which will be hereafter more particularly noticed. Upon the opposite shore appeared a very considerable multitude of the Circassians, collected either by curiosity, or the hope of bartering with the Cossacks, when the terms of peace should be concluded. The greater part of these remained at a distance from the rest, with evident caution and mistrust, as if uncertain what termination the business of the day might have. As soon as the Cossack cavalry made its appearance, the Circassian deputies rose, and came to the entrance of the pacha's tent, who was seen in front of the party, bearing in his hand a small tuft of camel's hair fastened to an ivory handle, with which he was occupied in keeping off the mosquitoes. The Cossack army halted upon the brow of the hill, and all the cavalry being dismounted, were drawn up in two lines parallel to the river, in front of which appeared the Cossack soldiers standing by their lances. The ataman and his principal officers rode down into the plain before the tent; where having alighted, their horses were taken back, and they all advanced bareheaded towards the pacha. We accompanied them; and being stationed by the ataman near his person, understood, by means of our interpreter, all that passed upon the occasion.

The preliminaries began by an apology from the ataman for having kept the pacha so long waiting. "Your coming," replied the pacha, "is for a good purpose, and therefore may have demanded consideration; it is only bad things which are rashly hurried over."

Ataman—"Have you explained to the Circassian princes, that we are not satisfied with oaths of peace made by them in their territory? We must bear testimony to their attestations here, in our own land."

Pacha—"I have made this known throughout all the Caucasian line; and several of the most powerful princes of the country are now present, to answer for the rest of their countrymen, and for themselves."

Ataman—"Have all those who are not present, as well as these their deputies, taken the oath of peace on the other side of the river?"

Pacha—"All of them. Unless I had been present upon the occasion myself, and had actually witnessed it, I would not venture to be responsible for their peaceable behaviour; which I now promise to be."

Ataman—"Your excellency speaks of a responsibility, which is perhaps much greater than you imagine. Hitherto, their princes have paid no respect to the obligation of an oath, which has been violated as often as it was made. How many have engaged to be bound by the oath which is now to be repeated?"

Pacha—"Fifty; and of these, the most powerful are the princes who have attended me upon this occasion."

Ataman—"All our Cossack brethren, whom the Circassians have made prisoners, must be restored, in failure of which the war will certainly be renewed; and in compliance with this demand all our prisoners will be given up."

Some other conversation passed which I was not able to collect, from the rapidity with which it was delivered. As soon as the preliminaries were concluded, which involved very little discussion, for the Circassians seemed willing to accede to any proposition made on the part of the Cossacks, the pacha took from his bosom a manuscript written upon linen, on which the Circassian princes severally laid their hands, repeating the necessary oath, which promised to the Cossacks the undisturbed possession of all the country on the northern side of the Kuban. What the nature of the manuscript was, we could not learn, except that it contained certain passages of the Koran and other sacred writings. The whole ceremony ended by the pacha's writing with a reed the names of the parties concerned in this transaction.

The extraordinary appearance of the Circassian princes drew my attention entirely to them. Their clothes were as ragged as any English beggar's, and their necks and legs quite bare. A few only had slippers of red leather on their feet. Their heads were all shaved, and covered on the crown with small skull-caps laced with silver.* In their belts they had large pistols; and by each of their sides were suspended a sabre and a knive. Ball-cartridges, sewed singly, were ranged in rows upon their breasts. The sleeves of their jackets being worn out at the elbows, plates of silver or of steel armour, inlaid, appeared through the holes, which they wore next the skin, covering their arms, and otherwise concealed by clothes. A coat of mail covered also the breast and the rest of the body Some of them wore a sort of iron shirt, made of twisted mail, or rings so closely interwoven, and so well adapted to the form, that every part of the body was covered and protected, except the face. Pallas, in his Travels through the South of Russia, has represented one of their princes on horseback, covered by this kind of armour. A bow and quiver are fastened by straps round the hips. I brought away one of their arrows, which had actually passed through the body of a Cossack horse, and killed the animal on the spot. The Circassians use the bow with very great skill, never making any random shots, but sure of the aim before they let the arrow fly. The Russian army dreaded very much those destructive weapons; as they are used by very skilful marksmen, who, like riflemen, station themselves in trees, or among rocks, in the passes of the mountains, to pick out the officers.

A circumstance not worth relating, if it did not illustrate the manners and character of the different people then assembled, afforded considerable amusement to us, who were merely spectators upon this occasion. When the pacha received the ataman with his attendants, he was evidently in a state of trepidation. Seeing the high banks of the river covered with armed men, and the lances of the Cossacks ranged like a forest along the northern side of the Kubau, he could not conceal his anxiety and uneasiness. His own manners were remarkably affable and polite; but he viewed the troops and officers of the Cossack army, by whom he was surrounded, as a set of lawless plunderers, for whose conduct there could be no long security. Doubtless he had heard as many tales of the barbarity of the Tchernomorski as we had done before, and wished himself again safe upon his own divan in Anapa. If we had been filled with such idle fancies by the Russians themselves, it is but reasonable to conclude that the Turks, who consider even the Russians as barbarians, must necessarily esteem the Cossacks as a set of ferocious banditti. The reader may then imagine what the astonishment of the pacha was, when, upon being induced by curiosity to ask the ataman from what country we were, he was informed we were English gentlemen, travelling for amusement among the very people whose appearance gave him so much uneasiness, and whom nothing but the most urgent necessity could have caused him to visit. He seemed to regain all his composure by this intelligence, speaking very highly of our countrymen, and saying, that the obligations England had conferred

* The most ancient covering of the head worn in Greece was exactly of the same shape, resembling the scalps torn by the Americans from the prisoners they make in war. It is worn beneath the turban all over the east. The Circassians of rank wear it without any turban. It is still worn in the same manner by many inhabitants of modern Greece; and its use in that country, long prior to its conquest by the Turks, agrees very well with my grandfather's opinions concerning the origin of the Getic, Gothic, and Grecian people.—See *Connection of the Roman, Saxon, and English Coins*, &c.

upon Turkey would never be forgotten. We took this opportunity to inquire respecting the state of the countries bordering the south coast of the Black Sea. He described them as full of difficulty and danger for travellers; that many districts were infested by merciless robbers; and that a journey to Constantinople by land from Anapa, would require at least three months; whereas by water, from the same place, it might be accomplished in four or five days. Indeed, the inhabitants of Taganrock have performed the voyage within that period, including the additional passage of the Sea of Azof and the Straits of Taman.

As soon as the ceremony ended, the pacha embarked with his suite, in a canoe so narrow, that two persons could not sit abreast; and, with more adventure than might have been expected in a Turk, hampered as he was by his cumbrous dress, he squatted on some weeds in the bottom of the vessel, and was soon paddled into the middle of the rapid torrent. Their canoes are all made of one piece of wood, being merely the trunk of a large tree scooped for the purpose. From the numbers huddled with the pacha, we expected every instant to see the canoe sink or upset, for its edge was level with the water. They were out of sight, however, in an instant, descending the current with amazing velocity, and disappearing by the turn of the river.

We then went to examine more minutely the crowd of Circassians of a lower order, numbers of whom were passing the Kuban in their canoes, and collecting on the Russian side. They came to exchange wood, honey, and arms, for salt, according to their usual practice in times of peace. Here we saw some of the wildest mountaineers of Caucasus, all of whom were completely armed, and all robbers by profession. The representations made of the natives in the South Seas do not picture human nature in a more savage state than it appears among the Circassians. Instructed from their infancy to consider war and plunder not only as a necessary, but as an honourable occupation, they bear in their countenance a most striking expression of ferocious valour, of cunning, suspicion, and distrust. If, while a Circassian is standing behind you, a sudden retrospect betrays you his features, his brow lowers, and he seems to meditate some desperate act; but the instant he perceives that he is observed, his countenance relaxes into a deceitful smile, and he puts on the most obsequious and submissive attitude imaginable. Their bodies, especially their legs, feet, and arms, are for the most part naked. They wear no shirt, and only a pair of coarse ragged drawers, reaching a little below the knee. Over their shoulders they carry, even during the greatest heat of summer, a thick and heavy cloak of felt, or the hide of a goat, with the hair on the outside, which reaches below the waist. Under this covering appear the sabre, bow and quiver, musket, and other weapons. The peasants, as well as their princes, shave the head, and cover it with the skull-cap, as before mentioned. Difference of rank, indeed, seems to cause little distinction of dress among them, except that the peasant farther covers the head and shoulders with a large cowl. The beauty of features and form, for which the Circassians have so long been celebrated, is certainly very prevalent among them. Their noses are aquiline, their eye-brows arched and regular, their mouths small, their teeth remarkably white, and their ears not so large nor so prominent as among the Tartars; though, from wearing the head shaven, they appear to disadvantage, according to European notions. They are well shaped, and very light limbed, being generally of the middle size, seldom exceeding five feet eight or nine inches. Their women are the most beautiful perhaps in the world, of enchanting perfection of countenance, and very delicate features. Those which we saw, and which were the accidental captives of war, carried off with their families, were remarkably handsome. Many of them, though suffering from ill health, fatigue, and grief, and under every possible circumstance of disadvantage, had yet a very interesting appearance. Their hair is generally dark or light brown, sometimes approaching to black. Their eyes have a singular animation, peculiar to the Circassian people, which in some of the men gives an expression of ferocity. The most chosen works of the best painters, representing a Hector or a Helen, do not display greater beauty than we beheld even in the prison at Ekaterinedara, where the wounded Circassians, male and female, charged with fetters, and huddled together, were pining in sickness and sorrow.

Seeing that the Circassians were collected in much greater numbers on the Caucasian side of the Kuban, we applied to the commander-in-chief for permission to pass over into their territory. This was obtained with great difficulty; and the ataman, accompanied by several armed Cossacks, was ordered to attend us. We crossed the river in canoes; and, arriving on the Circassian side, we beheld the natives, who had been collected from all parts of the country, gathered in parties along the shore. Several of them, having a most savage aspect, were formed into a group about 200 yards from the place where we landed. Perceiving the ataman avoided going towards them, we begged that he would allow us that privilege. "If it is your desire," said he, taking his sabre from its scabbard, "you shall not be disappointed on my account; but you little know what sort of people they are. They pay no respect to treaties, not even to their own princes, when they see an opportunity of plunder; and are likely to do some of us injury before we return." Our curiosity got the better of all fear, and we followed the ataman's reluctant steps to the place where they were assembled. Seeing us advance, they hastily snatched up their arms, which they had placed against the trees and on the ground, and received us with an air of evident defiance. We endeavoured to convince them that our views were pacific; but matters soon grew more and more menacing, as they began talking loud and with great rapidity. No one of our party understood what they said; and the ataman's uneasiness considerably increasing, we made signs for the canoes to draw near the shore, and effected our retreat. Thinking to show them some mark of respect and of our friendly intentions, we took off our hats, and bowed to them as we retired. The effect was very amusing: they all roared with loud and savage laughter, and, mocking our manner of making obeisance, seemed to invite us to a repetition of the ceremony; and as often as we renewed it, they set up fresh peals of laughter. The Cossack officers who accompanied us upon this occasion, told us that the Circassians who lurk about in the immediate vicinity of the Kuban are a tribe as wild and lawless as any in the whole district of Caucasus; and that their principal object is to seize upon men, and carry them off, for the purpose of selling them as slaves in Persia. The cannon on the heights of Ekaterinedara at that time commanded the whole marshy territory on the Circassian side; yet it was impossible to venture even a few hundred yards, in search of plants, on account of the danger that might be apprehended from the numbers who remained in ambush among the woods near the river. The hasty observation we had made disclosed to us a plain covered with wild raspberry trees, blackberry bushes, and a few large willows by the water's edge. Farther, towards the south, appeared woods of considerable extent, full of the finest oaks. Beyond these woods were seen the chain of the Caucasian mountains, and the territories which had been the theatre of war. The mountains rose like the Alpine barrier. Some of them appeared to be very high, and their sides retained patches of snow toward the middle of July; but, upon the whole, they seemed inferior in altitude to the Swiss Alps. The passes through Caucasus must be difficult and intricate, as the mountains stand close to each other, and their summits are rugged and irregular. Those which were nearest to Ekaterinedara were not less than twenty-six English miles distant, and yet very visible to the naked eye.

When we returned to the Russian side, the Circassians who had crossed the river were dancing and rejoicing on account of the peace. One of their vagrant musicians, exercising the profession so much esteemed

by all nations in the infancy of society, and particularly among the tribes who inhabit Mount Caucasus, played on a silver flute called *camil.* It was about two feet in length, and had only three finger holes towards the lower extremity of the tube. The mode of blowing this instrument is as remarkable as the sound produced. A small stick is placed in the upper end of a flute, open at either extremity; which, being drawn out to the length of an inch, is pressed by the performer against the roof of his mouth. It is very difficult to conceive how any tones can be produced in this manner, as the performer's mouth is kept open the whole time, and he accompanies the notes with his own voice. By the violent straining of every muscle in his countenance, the performance seemed a work of great difficulty and labour, the sounds all the while resembling the droning noise of a bagpipe. I wished to purchase the instrument with a quantity of salt, the only money they receive in payment; but its owner, deriving his livelihood and consequence among his countrymen entirely from the use of it, would not consent to sell it. The Circassians know nothing of the value of coins, using them only to adorn their persons; and even for this purpose they did not seem desirous to possess the few silver pieces we offered to them. It is evident that their favourite musical instrument, the camil, was not always of metal; for upon the silver tube which I have described, the natural joints seen upon canes and reeds in the rivers and marshes of the country had been imitated by the maker.

Their dances do not resemble those of any other nation. Something perhaps nearly similar may have been described as the practice of the inhabitants of the South-Sea islands. Ten, fifteen, or twenty persons, all standing in a line, and holding by each other's arms, begin lolling from right to left, lifting up their feet as high as possible, to the measure of the tune, and interrupting the uniformity of their motion only by sudden squeaks and exclamations. Nothing could seem more uneasy than the situation of the performers in the middle of the row; but even these, squeezed as they were from one side to the other, testified their joy in the same manner. After some time there was a pause, when a single dancer, starting from the rest, pranced about in the most ludicrous manner, exhibiting only two steps that could be assimilated to the movements of a dance, both of which may be noticed not only in our English hornpipe, but in all the dances of the northern nations. The first consisted in hopping on one foot, and touching the ground with the heel and toe alternately of the other. The second, in hopping on one foot, and thrusting the other before it, so as to imitate the bounding of a stag; from which animal the motion was originally borrowed, and whose name it bears among the wild Irish at this day. A due attention to national dances frequently enables us to ascertain the progress which has been made by any people towards refinement. The exercise itself is as ancient as the human race: and however variously modified, the popular dances of ages the most remote, and of countries the most widely separated, may all be deduced from one common origin, which has reference to the intercourse of the sexes, and is therefore more or less equivocal, in proportion as the state of society is more or less affected by the progress of civilisation.

In different parts of the great chain of mountains which bears the general appellation of Caucasus, the languages are as various as the principalities. Few of the present inhabitants of Kuban Tartary are able to converse with any of the Circassian tribes. Those whom we saw near the river spoke a dialect so harsh and guttural, that it was by no means pleasing to the ear. Pallas says it is probable that the Circassian bears no affinity to any other language, and that, according to report, their princes and *usdens* speak a peculiar dialect, which is kept secret from the common people, and used chiefly in their predatory excursions. Their mode of life is that of professional robbers. It might have been said of the Circassian, as of Ishmael, "He will be a wild man; his hand will be against every man, and every man's hand against him." Those who inhabit the passes of the mountains, and are not occupied in any agricultural employment, depend solely on plunder for their subsistence. The petty princes are continually at war with each other; and every one plunders his neighbour. The inhabitants of the plains go completely armed, to carry on the labours of the field. The crops are also guarded by armed men. No Circassian poet can therefore celebrate the peaceful occupation of the plough, since with them it is a warlike pursuit. The sower scattering seed, or the reaper who gathers the sheaves, is constantly liable to an assault; and the implements of husbandry are not more essential to the harvest, than the carbine, the pistol, and the sabre.*

Of all the Circassian tribes, the Lesgi, inhabiting the mountains of Daghestan, which run nearly parallel to the western coast of the Caspian, bears the worst reputation. Their very name excites terror among the neighbouring principalities, and it is used as a term of reproach by many of the natives of Caucasus. Different reports are naturally propagated concerning a people so little known as the Circassians in general; and perhaps half the stories concerning the Lesgi are without any foundation in truth. All the inhabitants of Caucasus are described by their enemies as notorious for duplicity, and for their frequent breach of faith; and it is through the medium of such representation alone that we derive any notion of their character. But, placing ourselves among them, and viewing, as they must do, the more polished nations around them, who seek only to enslave and to betray them, we cannot wonder at their conduct towards a people whom they consider both as tyrants and infidels. Examples of heroism may be observed among them, which would have dignified the character of the Romans in the most virtuous periods of their history. Among the prisoners in the Cossack army, we saw some of the Circassians who had performed feats of valour, perhaps unparalleled. The commander-in-chief, General Drascovitz, maintained, that in all the campaigns he had served, whether against Turks or the more disciplined armies of Europe, he had never witnessed instances of greater bravery than he had seen among the Circassians. The troops of other nations, when surrounded by superior numbers, readily yield themselves prisoners of war; but the Circassian, while a spark of life remains, will continue to combat even with a multitude of enemies. We saw one in the prison at Ekaterinedara, about thirty-five years of age, who had received fifteen desperate wounds before he fell and was made prisoner, having fainted from loss of blood. This account was given to me by his bitterest enemies,

*[There is no doubt that many of the Circassian tribes indulge in predatory habits; and from the animosity existing between the Cossacks and those near the Kuban, and the almost perpetual state of warfare in which they have been engaged since the Russian occupation of Kuban Tartary, the description of Dr Clarke is sufficiently applicable to that small portion of the Caucasian race with whom he had any intercourse. But the account of a recent traveller who enjoyed more opportunities of witnessing the Circassians than Dr Clarke, is diametrically opposed to what is stated in the text. This gentleman, Mr Spencer, accompanied Count Vorontzof, the Russian governor, in a naval excursion round the shores of the Black Sea, and he thus speaks of the appearance of the country between Anapa and Soujouk-Kalé.

"As our vessels glided slowly forward, we distinctly saw the little cots of the Circassians, with their smoking chimnies and farm-yards, surrounded by groves of fruit trees, appearing as if the very abodes of contentment and peace; shepherds in their picturesque costume, with long spears in their hands, tended their flocks and herds; the agricultural fields were filled with men, women, and children, cutting down the waving corn; and camels and buffaloes, loaded with the produce, were slowly winding their homeward way through the deep vallies. It was, indeed, a lovely picture, which blended the most splendid and picturesque scenery with the beauty of romantic rural life, and realised all that the most lively invention of a poet could create of an Arcadia."—SPENCER'S *Travels in Circassia*, vol I. p. 277.

It is proper to state, that Dr Lyall gives the same account of the people going armed to their occupations as Dr Clarke has done, when he speaks of the Circassians on the confines of the now Russian province of Georgia.—*Travels*, vol. II. p. 180.]

and may therefore surely be relied on. He was first attacked by three of the Cossack cavalry. It was their object to take him alive, if possible, on account of his high rank, and the consideration in which he was held by his own countrymen. Every endeavour was therefore used to attack him in such a manner as not to endanger his life. This intention was soon perceived by the Circassian, who determined not to surrender. With his single sabre, he shivered their three lances at the first onset, and afterwards wounded two of the three assailants. At length, surrounded by others who came to their assistance, he fell covered with wounds, in the midst of his enemies, fighting to the last moment. We visited him in his prison, where he lay stretched upon a plank, bearing the anguish of his terrible wounds without a groan. They had recently extracted the iron spike of a lance from his side. A young Circassian girl was employed in driving away the flies from his face with a green bough. All our expressions of concern and regard were lost upon him: we offered him money, but he refused to accept any, handing it to his fellow prisoners as if totally ignorant of its use.

In the same place of confinement stood a Circassian female, about twenty years of age, with fine light brown hair, extremely beautiful, but pale, and hardly able to support herself, through grief and weakness. The Cossack officers stated, that when they captured her she was in excellent health, but ever since, on account of the separation from her husband, she had refused all offer of food; and, as she pined daily, they feared she would die. It may be supposed we spared no entreaty which might induce the commander-in-chief to liberate these prisoners. Before the treaty of peace they had been offered to the highest bidder, the women selling generally from twenty-five to thirty roubles a-piece—somewhat less than the price of a horse. But we were told it was now too late, as they were included in the list for exchange, and must therefore remain until the Cossacks who were prisoners in Circassia were delivered up. The poor woman, in all probability, did not live to see her husband or her country again.

Another Circassian female, fourteen years of age, who was also in confinement, hearing of the intended exchange of prisoners, expressed her wishes to remain where she was. Conscious of her great beauty, she feared her parents would sell her, according to the custom of the country, and that she might fall to the lot of masters less humane than the Cossacks were. The Circassians frequently sell their children to strangers—particularly to the Persians and Turks—and their princes supply the Turkish seraglios with the most beautiful of the prisoners of both sexes which they take in war.

In their commerce with the Tchernomorski Cossacks, the Circassians bring considerable quantities of wood, and the delicious honey of the mountains, sewed up in goats' hides, with the hair on the outside. These articles they exchange for salt, a commodity found in the neighbouring lakes, of a very excellent quality. Salt is more precious than any other kind of wealth to the Circassians, and it constitutes the most acceptable present which can be offered to them. They weave mats of very great beauty, which find a ready market both in Turkey and Russia. They are also ingenious in the art of working silver and other metals, and in the fabrication of guns, pistols, and sabres. Some, which they offered for sale, we suspected had been procured from Turkey, in exchange for slaves. Their bows and arrows are made with inimitable skill; and the arrows, being tipped with iron, and otherwise exquisitely wrought, are considered by the Cossacks and the Russians as inflicting incurable wounds.

One of the most important accomplishments which the inhabitants of these countries can acquire, is that of horsemanship; and in this the Circassians are superior to the Cossacks, who are nevertheless justly esteemed the best riders known to European nations. A Cossack may be said to live but on his horse, and the loss of a favourite steed is the greatest *family* misfortune he can sustain. The poorer sort of Cossacks dwell under the same roof with their horses, lie down with them at night, and make them their constant companions. The horses of Circassia are of a nobler race than those of the Cossacks. They are of the Arab kind, exceedingly high bred, light, and small. The Cossack generally acknowledges his inability to overtake a Circassian in pursuit.

The brother of Mr Kovalensky of Taganrock, by cultivating the friendship of one of the Circassian princes, passed over the mountainous ridge of Caucasus in perfect safety and protection. According to his account, a stranger who has voluntarily confided in the honour of a Circassian, is considered a sacred trust, even by the very robbers, who would cross the Kuban to carry him off and sell him as a slave, if they chanced to find him in their predatory excursions out of their own dominions. Since this account was written, one of our own countrymen, Mr Mackenzie, passed the Caucasus, previous to a campaign which he served with the Russian army in Persia. His escort consisted of a hundred infantry and fifty Cossacks, with a piece of artillery. During thirteen days spent in the passage, the troops were under the necessity of maintaining a most vigilant watch, and their rear was frequently harassed by hovering hordes of Circassians. The result of his observations tends wholly to dispute the accuracy of those of Mr Kovalensky. According to Mr Mackenzie's opinion, no reliance whatever can be placed upon the supposed honour or promises of a people so treacherous and barbarous as those who inhabit this chain of mountains.

[Since the period of Dr Clarke's visit to the Kuban, little change has taken place in the relative positions of the Circassians and the Tchernomorski Cossacks. The latter, indeed, are rapidly dwindling in number, from the united effects of perpetual war, and the unwholesome air arising from the marshes in which they reside. But the inveterate hatred with which the two races regard each other is not allayed; and it is the ferocious policy of Russia to stimulate this animosity, rather than seek to soften it. That colossal power, as is too well known, has for many years been endeavouring to subdue the hardy mountaineers of the Caucasus, who, to this period, have maintained their independence. The Russians have, however, surrounded their frontiers with fortresses, and the territories they have recently conquered from the Turks and Persians almost completely enclose the Circassians, so as to isolate them from the rest of the world. The banks of the Kuban bristle with Russian cannon, and a fort has even been built south of that river called Aboon; but it is principally down the east coast of the Black Sea, from Anapa to the south of Youriel, that the Russian government has erected fortifications with a view to the subjugation of Circassia.

With regard to the character of the Circassians, there is little doubt that the accounts of their enemies are not much to be relied upon. The Russians, from whom most travellers receive their impressions, have a direct interest in representing them in the worst possible light, in order to remove from them the sympathy which the defence of the weak against the strong generally excites. That they are an uncivilised people, inured to war, prone to pillage, and impatient of restraints, moral or physical, may be all very true; but to these characteristics of the demi-savage they add many noble qualities. Those travellers who have gone among them asking protection and hospitality, have always received it, especially two of the latest of them—M. de Marigny, Dutch Consul at Odessa, and Mr Spencer. (See their respective works, Voyage sur le Côte de Circassia en 1823, 1824; and Travels in Circassia, 1837.) Any suspicion that a traveller is a Russian partisan or spy is sure to excite the anger of the natives, and the escort of Cossacks and Russians in company with Mr Mackenzie was quite sufficient to insure him a very bad reception.]

CHAPTER XVII.

JOURNEY ALONG THE FRONTIER OF CIRCASSIA, TO THE CIMMERIAN BOSPORUS.

In the commerce carried on between the Circassians and the Tchernomorski, a sort of quarantine is observed, trivial in its nature, and negligently guarded. The exchange of corn, honey, mats, wood, and arms, for the salt of the Cossacks, is transacted without contact—the wares of the Circassians being placed on the ground, where they find the salt ready stationed for bargain. But, from the very great proximity of the parties during all this intercourse, as well as the danger of communicating infection by handling the different articles while they are bartering, the plague, if it existed in Circassia, might very readily be communicated to the Tchernomorski. It is true, that except at Ekaterinedara, they seldom cross the river to each other's territory, during the profoundest peace; for so great is the mutual jealousy, and even detestation, in which they live, that quarrels and skirmishes would be the inevitable consequence of more general communication. Whether it is owing to their frequent hostilities, or the great rapidity of the Kuban, or the domestic habits of the Cossacks, is uncertain, but fishing seemed entirely neglected, notwithstanding their favourable situation. The only boats used upon the river are those canoes before mentioned, each consisting of one entire piece of wood, being scooped out of a single tree.

On the evening of the last day of our residence in Ekaterinedara, we again obtained permission from the commander-in-chief to make another excursion into Circassia. The natives on the opposite shore were much diminished in number; we could see only a few stragglers; and we hoped to collect some plants for our herbary. General Drascovitz himself attended us to the water's side, and, having sent over a party of Cossacks, retired with several of his troops to the high grounds on the northern bank of the river, in order to keep a look-out for our safety. The cannon stationed on these heights had a very extensive range over the opposite country; and we were ordered, if we heard a gun fired, to effect a retreat as speedily as possible. We landed, and found near the river the *glycyrrhiza glabra*, the *rubus cæsius*, and *agrimonia eupatoria*, or common agrimony. The appearance in the swampy plain before us did not promise a more copious selection, and we therefore entreated the Cossacks to venture with us to the woods, which appeared within a short walk to the south. This our guard positively refused; and continuing our search more immediately under the cannon of Ekaterinedara, we presently found they had good reason for their denial, as upwards of sixty of the Circassians made their appearance among the willows. On our approach, they all collected together, making a great noise, and asking us several questions in a loud tone, which perhaps were no otherwise menacing than we did not understand them. Irritated as they had been by the events of the late war, no confidence could have been placed in their courtesy, even if any had been manifested; for although hospitality among savage nations is a sacred principle, revenge is not less an object of veneration, particularly among Circassians.* We therefore reluctantly retired, and once more regaining our canoes, for ever bade adieu to a country which seemed to baffle every project that could be devised by mere travellers for its investigation. Nothing less than an army, at that time, could have enabled us to penetrate farther: and even with such an escort, like Denon in Egypt, our observations might have been restricted to the limits of the camp in which we must have lived.

Leaving Ekaterinedara, to pass along the Russian line, we crossed the steppes to Vydnia, a military station. Notwithstanding the very numerous videttes and garrisoned places which guard the frontier, we were desired to increase the number of our escort. A post route is established throughout this boundary of the empire, and, in general, is very well conducted.

Our journey conducted us, as usual, over immense plains, which seemed hopeless of any elevation or boundary. The land, however, between Ekaterinedara and Vydnia, was very rich. We saw some good wheat, barley, oats, millet, rye, Indian corn, and a great quantity of large thistles among the grass, which are a well known proof that the land is not poor. All sorts of melons and grapes were thriving in the open air. From Vydnia to Mechastovskoy, and to Kara Kuban (each of which latter places is nothing more than a single hut scooped in an ancient tomb), we noticed chiefly grass land, with here and there patches of underwood and young oaks; among which we found some red peas and vines, growing wild. The post-master at Mechastovskoy refused to change a note of five roubles, because it was old and had been a good deal in use. Hereabouts we observed a noble race of dogs, like those of the Morea, and of the province of Abruzzo in Italy, guarding the numerous flocks. The villages also were filled with them, on account of their utility in giving alarm during the nocturnal incursions of the Circassians. We also saw several of that gigantic breed which goes by the name of the Irish wolf-dog. From Kara Kuban our route lay chiefly through swamps, filled with reeds and other aquatic plants. The air was excessively hot and unwholesome. At length we reached that division of the river which insulates the territory of Taman, and crossing by a ferry, came to Kopil, another military station. The branch of the river in which this ferry is stationed bears the name of Protocka, and falls into the Sea of Azof.* The other branch retains the original appellation of Kuban, and falls into the Black Sea. The Isle of Taman, which separates the two, is the territory, which, opposed to the promontory of Kertchy, in the Crimea, constitutes those straits anciently called the Cimmerian Bosporus. At Kopil we found a general officer, who had married the daughter of one of the Tchernomorski. He showed us some of the subalterns' tents, which were full of dirt and wretchedness. In the colonel's tent, who was absent, we saw a table beautifully inlaid with mother-of-pearl and ivory. Upon asking where it was made, we were told it had been purchased of the Circassians, who are very ingenious in all such arts. The general told us, significantly, he preferred Kopil to Petersburg—any place, we inferred, rather than the residence of the Emperor Paul. Few situations could surpass Kopil in wretchedness. Bad air, bad water, swarms of mosquitoes, with various kinds of locusts, beetles, innumerable flies, lizards, and speckled toads, seemed to infest it with the plagues of Egypt. Horses could not be procured, but the general accommodated us with his own. As we left Kopil, we quitted also the river, and proceeded through marshes to Kalaus. In our way, we caught some small ducks, and saw also wild geese. At Kalaus were two young elks very tame; and we were told that many wild ones might be found in the steppes during spring.

In the course of this journey from Ekaterinedara, as

* "Among the Circassians, the spirit of resentment is so great, that all the relatives of the murderer are considered as guilty. This customary infatuation to avenge the blood of relatives generates most of the feuds, and occasions great bloodshed among all the tribes of Caucasus; for unless pardon be purchased, or obtained by intermarriage between the two families, the principle of revenge is propagated to all succeeding generations. The hatred which the mountainous nations evince against the Russians, in a great measure arises from the same source. If the thirst of vengeance is quenched by a price paid to the family of the deceased, this tribute is called *Thlil-Uasa*, or *the price of blood:* but neither princes nor usdens accept of such a compensation, as it is an established law among them to demand *blood for blood*."—Pallas's *Travels*, vol. I. p. 405.

* [Captain Cochran, in his Narrative of a Pedestrian Journey, &c. p. 113, has accused Dr Clarke of ignorance in calling the Protocka or Protok a river, affirming that the meaning of the word is "rivulet." It is true that Protok signifies a rivulet, and that the stream in question is small in comparison with the Kuban; but as it constitutes Taman an island, it is quite absurd to charge Dr Clarke with ignorance, because he has styled it a river. It is, properly speaking, a branch of the Kuban, and is so stated by De Bohujz in his Histoire de Tauride, introduction, p. 25.]

we advanced, the frequent stands of lances announced, at a distance, the comfortable assurance of the Tchernomorski guard, without which the herds of cattle in the steppes, amounting to many thousands, would be continually plundered by the Circassians. These guards pass the night on the bare earth, protected from the mosquitoes by creeping into a kind of sack, sufficient only for the covering of a single person, in which they lie upon the thistles and other wild plants of the steppes. At Kalaus there was rather a strong body of the military. From this place to Kourky the distance is thirty-five versts [rather less than twenty-four English miles]. Night came on, but we determined to proceed. No contrivance on our part could prevent millions of mosquitoes from filling the inside of our carriage, which, in spite of gloves, clothes, and handkerchiefs, rendered our bodies one entire wound. The excessive irritation and painful swelling caused by the bites of these furious insects, together with a pestilential air, excited in me a very considerable degree of fever.* The Cossacks light numerous fires to drive them from the cattle during the night; but so insatiate is their thirst of blood, that hundreds will attack a person attempting to shelter himself even in the midst of smoke. At the same time, the noise they make in flying cannot be conceived by persons who have only been accustomed to the humming of such insects in our country. It was, indeed, to all of us a fearful sound, accompanied by the clamour of reptile myriads, toads, and bull-frogs, whose constant croaking, joined with the barking of dogs and the lowing of herds, maintained in the midst of darkness an unceasing uproar. It was our intention to travel in all hours, without halting for any repose; but various accidents compelled us to stop at Kourky about midnight, a military station like the rest; and no subsequent sensation of ease or comfort has ever obliterated the impression made by the suffering of this night. It was near the middle of July. The carriage had been dragged, for many miles together, through stagnant pools; in fording one of which it was filled with water, and the dormeuse, seat, floor, and well, became, in consequence, covered with stinking slime. We stopped, therefore, to open and inspect the trunks. Our books and linen were wet. The Cossack and Russian troops were sleeping on the bare earth, covered by sacks, and beneath one of these a soldier permitted my companion to lie down. The ground seemed entirely alive with innumerable toads, crawling every where. Almost exhausted by fatigue, pain, and heat, I sought shelter in the carriage, sitting in water and mud. It was the most sultry night I ever experienced; not a breath of air was stirring; nor could I venture to open the windows, though almost suffocated, through fear of the mosquitoes. Swarms, nevertheless, found their way to my hiding-place, and when I opened my mouth, it was filled with them. My head was bound in handkerchiefs, yet they forced their way into my ears and nostrils. In the midst of this torment, I succeeded in lighting a large lamp over the sword-case, which was instantly extinguished by such a prodigious number of these insects, that their dead bodies actually remained heaped in a large cone over the burner for several days afterwards; and I know not any mode of description which may better convey an idea of their afflicting visitation, than by simply relating this fact; to the truth of which, those who travelled with me, and who are now living, bear indisputable testimony.

The northern bank of the Kuban, being every where elevated, presents a very extensive view, across those marshy plains of Circassia which lie towards the river, of the mountainous ridges of Caucasus. As morning dawned, we had a delightful prospect of a rich country on the Circassian side, something like South Wales, or the finest parts of Kent—pleasing hills, covered with wood, and fertile vallies, cultivated like a garden. A rich Circassian prince, the proprietor of this beautiful territory, frequently ventured across the Kuban, as we were informed, to converse with the guard. On the Russian side, the scenery is of a very different description, particularly in the journey from Kalaus to Kopil, where it is a continued swamp; in travelling through which, tall reeds, the never-failing indication of unwholesome air, rose above the roof of our carriage, to the height of sixteen or twenty feet. Sometimes, for many miles, we saw no other objects, nor were other sounds heard, than the noise of mosquitoes, and the croaking of toads and frogs. Upon the elevated land nearer to the river, and in the midst of the military stations which protect the line, observatories of a very singular construction are raised, for the purpose of containing a single person. They resemble so many eagles' nests, each of which is placed upon three upright tall poles, or trunks of trees. Here a Cossack sentinel, standing with his fusil, continually watches the motions of the Circassians, on the opposite side of the Kuban.

As we left Kourky, the mosquitoes began to diminish in number, and, to our inexpressible joy, in the approach towards the shores of the Cimmerian Bosporus, or Straits of Taman, they suddenly disappeared altogether.*

We were now approaching countries connected with the earliest history of Greece, and the most splendid periods of Rome. Occasions to illustrate their interesting records, by reference to ancient monuments, might indeed be few; but we resolved to note every occurring observation, and did not anticipate with indifference the gratification we should experience in traversing regions once the emporium of Athens, which continued to supply her with the principle of her existence, as a maritime power, until the commerce of the Euxine passed, with the liberties of Greece, into the hands of the Romans. Her trade in the Euxine not only enriched, but supported her inhabitants. It became the nursery for her seamen, and was of the utmost importance in the demand it occasioned for her own manufactures. A very principal part of this intercourse was confined to the Cimmerian Bosporus, whose kings and princes received the highest marks of Athenian regard. Many of them were made citizens of Athens, which in that age was esteemed one of the most distinguished honours that could be conferred.† From periods the most remote—from those distant ages when the Milesian settlements were first established upon the coasts of the Euxine, a trade with the inhabitants of the country, which extended even to the Palus Mæotis and the mouths of the Tanaïs, had been carried on; and it is perhaps to those early colonies of Greece that we

* The mortality thus occasioned in the Russian army, both of men and horses, was very great. Many of those stationed along the Kuban died in consequence of mortification produced by the bites of these insects. Others, who escaped the venom of the mosquitoes, fell victims to the badness of the air. Sometimes they scoop a hollow in the ancient tombs, to serve as a dwelling; at other times a mere shed, constructed of reeds, affords the only covering: and in either of these places, during the greatest heat of summer, they light large fires, in order to fill the area with smoke—flying to their suffocating ovens, in the most sultry weather, to escape from the mosquitoes.

* The inhabitants of Taman had never been tormented by these insects; but during the night after our arrival, the whole family with whom we lodged were stung by a few, which came with us unperceived in the carriage. England is for the most part free from this terrible scourge, as well as from the locust; but it is very uncertain how long it may continue so, as the progress of both one and the other, towards latitudes where they were formerly unknown, has been sensibly felt in many countries within the present century. Perhaps in no part of the globe do they abound more than in Lapland. When Acerbi published his Travels in those regions, it was objected that he had too often mentioned the mosquitoes; yet there is no circumstance which gives to his writings more internal evidence of truth than the cause of this objection. The fact is, the real nature of their afflicting visitation, which renders even life burdensome, cannot be conceived but by persons who have had the misfortune to undergo its consequences.

† "Leuco, king of Thrace, was so much pleased with it, that he ordered the decree which made him an Athenian citizen, to be engraved on three marble columns: one of them was placed in the Piræus, another on the side of the Thracian Bosporus, and the third in the temple of Jupiter Urius."—CLARKE'S *Connexion of Coins*, p. 56.

may attribute most of the surprising sepulchral monuments found on either side of the Cimmerian Bosporus. The Milesians erected a number of cities upon all the shores of the Euxine, and peopled them with their own colonies. Other states of Greece, and especially the Athenians, followed their example. The difficulty of ascertaining the locality of these ancient cities arises from two causes—first, from the want of harmony which prevails among those authors whose writings we adopt as guides, and, secondly, from our ignorance of the geography of the country. Not a single map has yet been published which gives any accurate representation. The only clue we possessed to conduct us in our approach to the Bosporus, was the large Basil edition of Pliny, a folio volume, which had been presented to us by Mr Kovalensky of Tagaurock—a most unexpected acquisition in the plains of Tartary. According to the text of that author, we had every reason to believe we were not far from the situation of the ancient town of Cimmerium; and in this conjecture we were probably right.

At the foot of a small mountain, near the northern embouchure of the Kuban, we came to a station called Temrook. This place may be observed in the Russian maps. It is now nothing more, however, than a single hut, for the purpose of supplying post-horses. Near it, the very year before our arrival, a volcano rose from the sea, forming an island, which afterwards sank again.* Temrook is mentioned in the notes to the Oxford edition of Strabo in more than one instance, with allusion to the Travels of Motraye, and written *Temrok*. In Motraye's time it was a place of more consideration than we found it. He was there in the beginning of the last century, and describes it as "considerable for its commerce in hides, caviare, honey, Circassian slaves, and horses." He supposed its castle stood where the ancients placed their *Patræus;* and "two eminences," says he, "which are named 'the point of the island,' may have been their *Achilleum Promontorium.*" Hardly any thing else seems required in order to prove that this must have been the situation of *Cimmerium*, which was, as Pliny mentions, "*ultimo in ostio.*" It had formerly, observes the same geographer, borne the name of *Cerberion.* Pallas remarks, that Temrook may probably have been the *Cimbricus* of Strabo. That which at present entitles it to the particular notice of the traveller is, that from this place Motraye began his journey, when he discovered, in so remarkable a manner, the ruins of a Greek city in Circassia, which seems decidedly, from an inscription he found there, to have been Apaturus. All that we can collect from the obscurity which involves this part of his narrative, is, that leaving Temrook, he turned to the right, and, crossing a river, called by the Tartars the Great Water (probably the Kuban), arrived, after a journey of 110 hours, at those ruins—also, that they were situated in a *mountainous country;* for he observes, that the Tartars of the mountains were not so civil as those of the plains. It follows, therefore, that Pliny is not speaking of the Apaturus in Sindica, mentioned by Strabo, when he couples it with Phanagoria, but of a temple of Apaturian Venus, belonging to that city, and which Strabo also notices. Having thus removed one difficulty, in reconciling the places on the Bosporus with the text of these authors, we may perhaps proceed with more facility and precision.*

After leaving Temrook, we journeyed, for the most part in water, through an extensive morass, in the very midst of which are stationed the remarkable ruins of a considerable fortress, looking like an old Roman castle, and said to have belonged to the Turks. At the taking of this place, the Russians, from their ignorance of the country, lost 500 men. In order to attack an outpost, they had a small river to cross, which they expected to pass on ice; but the Turks had cut it away, and the water was deep. During the deliberation caused by this unexpected embarrassment, the Turks, who were concealed behind a small rampart, suddenly opened a brisk fire, which caused them to leap into the water, where they were all shot or drowned. The fortress itself is a square building, having a tower at each angle, and is still almost entire. It is puzzling to conceive for what purpose it was erected, as it stands in the midst of a swamp, without seeming to protect any important point. Is it possible that such a building can present the remains of *Cimmerium*, or even the *Tmutaracan* of the Russians, or any work of high antiquity? On account of its form, we should be inclined to believe its origin of no remote date; and yet that little has been ascertained of the style of architecture used in the earliest periods of fortification, may be proved by reference to a silver medal in my own collection, which I afterwards found in Macedonia. This medal is of the highest antiquity, being rude in form, and without any legend or monogram. The subject of it offers in front, within an indented square, the figure of a man, with a crowned head and a poignard in his hand, combating a lion; and the reverse, with very little exception, may represent the fortress in question.

At the distance of two versts from this fortress we saw other ruins, with a few ancient and some Turkish tombs, and subterraneous excavations. Among these may be recognised the identical antiquities described by Motraye in his Travels. No trace of any ancient work afterwards appeared, excepting tumuli, until we came to the Bay of Taman. Then, on the shore, immediately above some very high cliffs, we observed the remains of a very large fortress and town, entirely surrounded with tombs and broken mounds of earth, indicating evident vestiges of human labour. The geography of these coasts is so exceedingly obscure, that a little prolixity in noticing every appearance of this kind may perhaps be tolerated. We soon reached the post-house of Sienna, actually scooped in the cavity of an ancient tomb. In the neighbourhood of this place, we found remains of much greater importance. Its environs were entirely covered with tumuli, of a size and shape that could not fail at once to excite a traveller's wonder and stimulate his research. The commandant of engineers at Taman, General Vanderweyde, had already employed the soldiers of the garrison in opening the largest. It was quite a mountain. They began the work, very ignorantly, at the summit, and for a long time laboured to no purpose. At last, by changing the direction of their excavation, and opening the eastern side, they discovered the entrance to a large arched vault, of the most admirable masonry. I had the pleasure to descend into this remarkable sepulchre. Its mouth was half filled with earth, yet, after passing the entrance, there was sufficient space for a person to stand upright. Farther, towards the interior, the area was clear, and the work perfectly entire. The material of which the masonry consisted was a white crumbling limestone, such as the country now affords, filled with fragments of minute shells. Whether it was the work of Milesians, or other colonies of Greece, the skill used in its construction is very evident. The stones of the sides are all square, perfect in their form, and put to-

* The following account of the rising of this island has been extracted from Pallas's Travels:—"It was about sunrise, on the 5th of September (1799), when a subterraneous noise, and soon after a dreadful thundering, were perceived in the sea of Azof, opposite to old Temruk, about one hundred and fifty fathoms from the shore. This intestine convulsion was speedily followed by a report, not unlike that of a cannon; while the astonished spectators, who had attentively watched the terrific scene, observed an island, of the form of a large barrow, rising from a cavity of the sea about five or six fathoms deep, and proceeding above the surface of the water, so that it occupied a space of about one hundred fathoms in circumference. At first it appeared to swell and separate by fissures, throwing up mire with stones, till an eruption of fire and smoke occupied the spot. . . . . On the same day, about seven o'clock P. M., two violent shocks of an earthquake, after a short interval, were perceived at Ekaterinodar, which is two hundred versts (near 134 miles) distant from Temruk." The same author relates that the island sank again before he could visit it.

* [Temrook, or Temrúk, is now fortified, and is called by Dr Lyall a large village. Whilst under the dominion of the Turks, it had a garrison of 2000 janizaries.—LYALL, vol. I. p. 394.]

gether without any cement. The roof exhibits the finest turned arch imaginable, having the whiteness of the purest marble. An interior vaulted chamber is separated from the outer by means of two pilasters, swelling out wide towards their bases, and placed, one on each side, at the entrance. The inner chamber is the larger of the two.

Concerning every thing found in this tomb, it is perhaps not possible to obtain information. One article alone, that was shown to me by General Vanderweyde at Taman, may give an idea of the rank of the person originally interred there. It was a zone for the leg, or bracelet for the arm, of the purest massive gold. The soldiers employed in the undertaking stole whatever they deemed of value and were able to conceal, and destroyed other things which did not appear to them to merit preservation. Among these was a number of vases* of black earthenware, adorned with white ornaments. The bracelet was reserved by General Vanderweyde to be sent to Petersburg, for the emperor's cabinet; but as enough has been said of Russia to induce at least a suspicion that so valuable a relic may never reach its destination, a more particular description of it may be necessary. Its weight equalled three quarters of a pound. It represented the body of a serpent, curved in the form of an ellipse, having two heads, which, meeting at opposite points, made the opening for the wrist or ankle. These serpent heads were studded with rubies, so as to imitate eyes, and to ornament the back part of each head by two distinct rows of gems. The rest of the bracelet was also farther adorned by rude graved work. It possessed no elasticity; but, on account of the ductility of pure gold, might, with sufficient force, be expanded so as to admit the wrist or the ankle of the person who was to wear it; and probably, when once adapted to the form, remained during the life-time of the owner. I could not but view it as the most ancient specimen of art which perhaps exists in the world; and which, while it shows the progress then made in metallurgy, and in the art of setting precious stones, at the same time offers a type of the mythology of the age in which it was made—the binding of a serpent round the leg or arm, as a talisman, being one of the superstitions common to almost every nation in an early period of civilisation, and is a practice which may be often observed even at this day. Immediately above the stonework constructed for the vault of the sepulchre, appeared first a covering of earth, and then a layer of sea-weed, compressed by another superincumbent stratum of earth to the thickness of about two inches. This layer of sea-weed was as white as snow, and when taken in the hand, separated into thin flakes, and fell to pieces. What the use of this vegetable covering could be, is very uncertain, but it is found in all the tombs of this country. Pallas observed it placed in regular layers, with coarse earthenware vases, of rude workmanship, and unglazed, which were filled with a mixture of earth and charcoal. It is said that a large marble soros, or sarcophagus, the top of which now serves for a cistern, near the fortress of Yenikalé in the Crimea, was taken from this tomb. The appearance of the entrance, however, in its present state, contradicts the story, as the opening has never yet been made sufficiently wide for its removal, even had it been so discovered.

Similar tombs are found on all the shores of the Bosporus. Close by that which I have described are many others, and some nearly of equal size. Pallas, in his journey over this country, mentions the frequent recurrence of such appearances all round the Bay of Taman. Indeed, it would be vain to ask where they are not observed. The size, grandeur, and riches of those on the European and Asiatic sides of the Cimmerian Straits, excite astonishing ideas of the wealth and power of the people by whom they were constructed; and, in the view of labour so prodigious, as well as of expenditure so enormous, for the purpose of inhuming a single body, customs and superstitions are manifest, which illustrate the origin of the pyramids of Egypt, the caverns of Elephanta, and the first temples of the ancient world. In memory of "the mighty dead," long before there were any such edifices as temples, the simple sepulchral heap was raised, and it became the altar upon which sacrifices were offered. Hence the most ancient heathen structures for offerings to the gods were always built upon tombs, or in their immediate vicinity. The discussion which has been founded on the question whether the Egyptian pyramids were tombs or temples, seems altogether nugatory: being one, they were necessarily the other. The soros in the interior chamber of the great pyramid of Cheops, which indisputably determines its sepulchral origin, as decidedly establishes the certainty that it was also a place of religious worship:—

> Et tot *templa* Deûm Romæ, quot in urbe *Sepulchra*
> Heroûm, numerare licet.

The sanctity of the Acropolis of Athens owed its origin to the sepulchre of Cecrops; and without this leading cause of veneration, the numerous temples with which it was afterwards adorned would never have been erected. The same may be said of the Temple of Venus at Paphos, built over the tomb of Cinyras, the father of Adonis; of Apollo Didymæus, at Miletus, over the grave of Cleomachus; with many others alluded to both by Eusebius and by Clemens Alexandrinus. On this account, ancient authors make use of such words for the temples of the gods, as, in their original and proper signification, imply nothing more than a tomb or a sepulchre.

Sienna* seems to correspond very accurately with the Cepvs of Strabo, and Cepœ Milesiorum of Pliny. The Milesian sepulchres found there in such abundance may probably still further confirm this position: but, in order to elucidate the text of either of these authors, it is absolutely necessary that reference should be made to better maps than have hitherto been published. No less than three ancient bridges of stone lead to this place from Taman; and that they were works as much of luxury as of necessity, is proved from their being built across places containing little or no water at any time. A shallow stream flows under one of them, which the people of the country pass at pleasure, disregarding the bridges as being high, and somewhat dangerous on account of their antiquity. They consist each of a single arch, built with great skill, and according to that massive solidity which bespeaks the works of remoter periods. The usual bridges of the country are nothing more than loose pieces of timber covered with bulrushes.

We passed the new fortress of Taman, in our way to the town, which is distant from it two versts.† Workmen were then employed upon the building. It is an absurd and useless undertaking, but calculated to become the sepulchre of the few remaining inscribed marbles and Grecian bas-reliefs, which are daily buried in its foundation. As a military work, the most able engineers view it with ridicule; for an army may approach close to its walls, protected from its artillery by a natural fosse, and even unperceived by the garrison. The Russians begin to be convinced of the bad policy which induced them to extend their frontier into this part of Asia. The defence of the line from Ekaterinedara to Taman, which is not half the extent it occupies between the Caspian and the Black Sea, required at the time we passed an army of 50,000 men,‡ whose troops, from the unwholesome climate and bad water, consi-

* A few of these vases were, however, sent to Moscow, according to the account given to me in the country, and were there swallowed by the whirlpool which engulfs all that is dear to literature in that city. Their local history is probably now lost, for the Russians, in their astonishing ignorance, call all works of this kind *Etruscan*, believing thereby to add to their value.

* Sienna is the name of this place, as pronounced by the Tchernomorski Cossacks; but they are constantly changing the appellation of the different places in the country, and I know not what name it had among the Tartars.

† "There is a fortress with a Russian garrison, of whom the Cossacks complain heavily as infamous thieves. Our carriage was guarded every night by a Cossack sentinel with his lance."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

‡ That is to say, during a period of war. In ordinary times, the number is by no means so considerable. Mr Heber makes the whole guard of the cordon only equal to 5000 men.

dered the station as little better than a grave. The country itself yields no profit, being for the most part swampy or barren land, and only serves to drain Russia of soldiers, who might be better employed. The natural boundaries offered by the Black Sea, the Sea of Azof, and the Don, with a cordon from that river to Astrachan, would much better answer the purposes of strength and aggrandisement: but Russia, morally considered, is like an enormous toad, extending on every side her bloated unwieldy form and gradually becoming weaker, as she swells with au unwholesome and unnatural expansion.

Arriving at Taman, we were lodged in the house of an officer who had been lately dismissed the service, through the attention of whom, and of General Vanderweyde, the commander of engineers, we were enabled to rescue from destruction some of the antiquities condemned to serve as materials in constructing the fortress. The general conducted us over the ruins, whence they derive masses of marble for this purpose; and called them, as they really appear to be, the ruins of the city of Phanagoria. They are found over all the suburbs of Taman; the ground, for some versts in extent, being covered with the foundations of ancient buildings, among which are frequently discovered blocks of marble, fragments of sculpture, and ancient coins. Of the coins which I procured on either side the Bosporus, few are common in cabinets. One, in particular, found in or near Taman, deserves particular notice, as it seems to confirm what I have said respecting the situation of Phanagoria. It is a small silver medal of that city, of great antiquity, and I believe the only one which remains, as there is nothing like it in the collection at Paris, nor in any other cabinet of Europe known to me. In the front, it presents the head of a young man, with that kind of cap which I have described in a preceding page of this work; and upon the reverse appears a bull, butting, with a grain of corn in the space below the line on which the animal stands, and above are a few Greek letters. When we consider the destruction of ancient works which has been so long carried on in Taman and its neighbourhood, we may reasonably wonder that any thing should now remain to indicate its former history. So long ago as the beginning of the last century, Motraye says the remains of antiquity were daily diminishing.* Between Taman and Temrook, he observed the lower part of a soros used as a cistern, of which soros the cistern at Yenikalé was probably the cover. Whenever a traveller has reason to suspect that he is upon or near the site of ancient cities, an inquiry after the cisterns used by the inhabitants may guide him to very curious information, as it is the use to which the soroi are universally appropriated, and upon them ancient inscriptions may frequently be discovered. Another cause of the loss of ancient monuments at Taman was the establishment there of a colony of Russians at a very early period, when the city bore the name of Tamatarcan, or Tmutaracan. Near the gate of the churchyard of Taman lies the marble slab, with the curious inscription which threw so much light upon the situation of that ancient principality of Russia, once the residence of her princes. We had the satisfaction to see it, and to copy the inscription, which has been illustrated both by the writings of Pallas and by the celebrated Russian antiquary, the latter of whom has published, in his own language, so valuable a dissertation concerning it.* It is therefore superfluous to say more of this valuable relic, than that it commemorates a mensuration made upon the ice, by Prince Gleb, son of Vladimir, in the year 1065, of the distance across the Bosporus, from Tmutaracan to Kertchy—that is to say, from Phanagoria to Panticapæum, which is found to correspond with the actual distance from Taman to Kertchy. The words of the inscription are to the following effect:—"In the year 6576 (1065), Indict. 6., Prince Gleb measured the sea on the ice; and the distance from Tmutaracan to Kertchy was 30,054 fathoms."† Pallas relates, that the freezing of the Bosporus, so that it may be measured on the ice, is in itself no uncommon occurrence; which, while it serves to ascertain the truth of ancient history, proves also that the degrees of heat and cold do not vary as those of latitude; both Taman and Kertchy‡ being nearer to the equator than Venice, where the freezing of the sea would be accounted a prodigy. The cavalry of Mithridates are said to have fought on the ice, in the same part of the Bosporus where a naval engagement had taken place the preceding summer.

Among the other antiquities of Taman, one of the most remarkable is an amphitheatre, which seems to have been intended for exhibitions of naval combats, if not used as a vast reservoir for containing water for other purposes. It is no less than a thousand paces in diameter, and all the floor paved. Its form is circular, and every where surrounded by ruins and the foundations of buildings, which slope towards the vast area in the middle. On one side only is a wide opening, that seems to have afforded the principal entrance. The pavement of the area, consisting of broad flat stones, is now covered by earth and weeds. The subterranean conduits, through which the water was conveyed, still remain; but they are now appropriated to other uses. One of them, beneath the church, is kept in order, for the use of the priests. When the Cossacks of the Black Sea first arrived in their new settlement, they caused the water to flow into this immense reservoir, for the use of their cattle; but as it stagnated, and proved extremely unwholesome, it was afterwards drained off. Crossing this area towards the south, are seen the remains of a temple, built after the Grecian model, and of considerable size. Here the workmen employed on the fortress discovered a considerable quantity of ancient materials, which they removed—such as marble columns, entablatures (many of which had inscriptions), marble bas-reliefs, and pieces of sculpture, which they have buried in the foundation of that edifice, or destroyed in making lime. Near the ruins of this temple are also those of some other public edifice, which must have been of prodigious size, covering a great extent of ground. The marble, as well as other stones, which the ancients employed in the buildings of Phanagoria, are all substances foreign to the country. The Isle of Taman produces nothing similar. The materials found there were brought either from the Crimea, from Greece, or, in later ages, by the Genoese from Italy. Among the fragments of such extraneous substances, I observed upon the shore even the productions of Vesuvius, and could readily account for their appearance,

* "We took up our lodging that night at Taman, and set out on the 25th, early in the morning, and I observed nothing remarkable between this town and Temrook, but some yet considerable ruins, *which were likely to become less so every day by their continued diminution*, occasioned by the inhabitants of these two places carrying off, from time to time, part of them to build magazines, or lay the foundations for some houses. By their situation, they seemed to me to have been those of the *Phanagoria* of the ancients, if it was not at Taman; but I could not find either inscriptions or basso-relievos to give me any further insight into it. Hard by the highway, near a well, there is a sort of a long and large chest of hard stone, as valuable as marble, and without a cover, almost like the tombs at Lampsaco."—MOTRAYE'S *Travels*, vol. II. p. 40.

* Alexis Mussin-Pushkin, one of the members of the privy council in Russia, published an elucidation of the inscription, and of the principality of Tmutarakan, accompanied by a map, explanatory of the geography of ancient Russia.—*Petrop.* 1794. 4to. See also PALLAS'S *Travels in the South of Russia*, &c., vol. II. p. 300.

† [Dr Lyall asserts (vol. I. p. 337) that both Pallas and Clarke have misinterpreted this celebrated Selavonic inscription. "The year 6576," says he, "corresponds to A. D. 1068; and the distance of the passage between these places (Tmutarakan and Kertch) is not 30,054 fathoms, which would make 60½ versts, but only 8054 fathoms, which make 16½ versts. This is the real distance between Kertch and Taman."]

‡ These towns are situated in latitude 45. Venice is about half a degree nearer to the North Pole. Naples and Constantinople are, with respect to each other, nearly on the same line of latitude; yet snow falls frequently during winter, in the latter city, but is seldom seen in the former.

having often seen the Genoese ballast their vessels in the Bay of Naples, where the beach is covered by volcanic products. It will be necessary to attend to this fact, lest such substances, found upon the Bosporus, should hereafter be confounded with the products of a volcano which is only twenty-seven miles distant from Taman, called, by the Tartars, Coocoo Obo, and which the Tchernomorski, now possessors of the country, distinguish by the name of Prekla.* The eruptions of Prekla, although accompanied by smoke and fire, have not yet been followed by any appearance of lava. The product has been a prodigious discharge of viscous mud. The first explosion took place on the 27th of February 1794, at half-past eight in the morning, and was followed by the appearance of a column of fire, rising perpendicularly to the height of fifty fathoms from the hill I have mentioned. This hill is situated in the middle of a broad angular isthmus, on the north-east side of the Bay of Taman, distant only eight miles from that place, in a direct line across the water, and only ten from Yenikalé on the Crimean side of the Bosporus. The particulars of this extraordinary phenomenon are given so much in detail by Pallas, that it would be useless to repeat them here. Observations on such muddy volcanoes have been published by Müller, and by Kæmpfer, in Germany; and different travellers have given an account of similar eruptions of mud at Mukuba in Sicily. At present there is nothing remarkable to be seen at Prekla, except boiling springs in the cavities whence the eruptions of fire and mud proceeded, and which, though perfectly cool, remain in a constant state of ebullition.†

Two marble columns were lying before the church at Taman, each consisting of one entire block, about eighteen inches in diameter. Their capitals were of white marble (although the shafts were of *cipolino*‡), beautifully sculptured, having a representation of a ram's head at each corner, the curving horns of which made them resemble the Ionic order. Almost all the marble in Taman is of the kind called cipolino. Near the columns were two marble lions, as large as life, and each executed in one entire block. Representations of the lion, sometimes of colossal size, are common upon these shores, left probably by the Genoese or Venetians. Two others were stationed before the door of the general's house. On the opposite side of the Bosporus are other remains of the same kind, particularly at Kertchy and at Yenikalé. Near this latter place is a very large one, lying in the sea, which may be seen in calm weather, although under water. In the wall of the church at Taman we observed two marble slabs with inscriptions, which I copied with difficulty, as they were covered with whitewash; and we saw many others buried in the foundation of the fortress, which it was impossible to recover. Having, therefore, concluded our researches and journey in this part of Asia, we hired a boat, on the 12th of July, to conduct us to Yenikalé in the Crimea, on the opposite side of the Straits, a distance of twelve miles, being resolved to examine all that side of the Bosporus, and afterwards to explore the whole of the Peninsula.*

* A term used also by the Malo-Russians to signify *hell*. It is remarkable, that the Icelanders should likewise have called their volcano *Hekla*, which has perhaps in their language the same signification.

† "We took a ride with our Cossack host to see the mire fountains mentioned by Pallas. The first thing we were shown was a circular area, resembling the crater of a small volcano. In the centre was a heap of stones, which, with the surrounding mud, appeared impregnated with sulphur. In one place was a pool of water, without any particular taste. About five hundred yards distant was another circle, but much smaller, all of soft mud; and in the centre was a little hole, whence slowly bubbled out a nauseous black fluid, like bilge water. By treading on any part of the mud, more matter oozed from the wound, for the whole had the appearance of one vast sore. We thrust our sticks into the mud, but found no bottom; and on withdrawing them, a similar kind of fluid rose through the apertures they had made. There was another, precisely similar, at a small distance; and very near this last, a well of water, resembling that of Harrowgate, in taste, smell, and sparkling."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal*.

‡ Cipolino is a name given by Italians to an impure marble, which, containing veins of schistus, decomposes, and falls off in flakes like the coats of an onion.

CHAPTER XVIII.

FROM THE CIMMERIAN BOSPORUS TO CAFFA.

WE set sail from Taman on the 12th of July. The distance to Yenikalé, on the opposite shore, is only eighteen versts, or twelve English miles. Prosperous gales, and placid weather, soon brought us midway between the European and Asiatic coasts. Dolphins, in considerable numbers, played about our vessel. These animals go in pairs; and it is remarkable how very accurately their appearance corresponds with the description given of them by Pliny. Arriving opposite Yenikalé, or, as it is frequently written, Jenikalé,† we found a fleet of Turkish ships waiting favourable winds, both for Taganrock and for Constantinople. Soon after we landed, we obtained lodgings in a neat and comfortable Greek mansion, the owner of which, by birth a Spartan, and a native of Misitra, was a man of integrity and considerable information. His wife was a native of Paros. We found their dwelling an asylum so agreeable, after our long Scythian penance, that we remained there nearly a week. A wooden balcony, or covered gallery, to which their principal apartment opened, gave us a constant view of the Bosporus, with all the opposite Asiatic coast, and of the numerous vessels which at this season of the year are constantly passing to and fro. As the table of our host was free to every comer, we dined with people from almost all parts of Greece and Asia Minor, and their conversation, as they all spoke Italian, was intelligible and interesting. The natives of Cephalonia, a sturdy and athletic race, those of the Morea, of the islands of the Archipelago, of Candia, the south coast of the Black Sea, Trebisond, Amasra, and Constantinople, amused us by the singularity of their dress and manner, as well as by their conversation. The house of Keriâki, for that was the name of our host, was a sort of rendezvous, at which they all met, once in a year, in their voyage to and from Taganrock.‡ His windows were full of books, printed at Venice, in the modern Greek language, although the characters exactly corresponded with those in use among us; and his boys, during evening, read to him the popular poem of Erotocritus, the life of Alexander, with the extraordinary anecdotes of his horse Bucephalus, and the history of the ancient kings of Byzantium. Their mode of pronouncing Greek is much softer than ours, and more like Italian, but they understood me when I endeavoured to read Greek after their manner. Among all the Greeks, the letter B is sounded like our V, and it is very doubtful whether this was not the case in ancient times. The natives of the Crimea still call the town of Kertchy *Vospor*, and the straits *Vospor*, although they write the word *Bospor*. It is worth while to inquire into the origin of the very popular poem of Erotocritus, since, although in rhyme, and certainly of no ancient date, the traditions and the stories on which it is founded are common all over Greece, and constitute the favourite topic of their evening tales. They pretend that the palace of Erotocritus is still to be seen, at a place called Cava Colonna, near Athens, alluding evidently to the promontory and temple of Sunium. Upon the walls of Keriâki's apartments were rude drawings, representing subjects taken from Grecian history, and, among others, was one of Hercules, in a helmet and coat of mail, destroying the

* [Taman, though stated at one time to have been a large town, contains now but 150 inhabitants; yet a museum of the antiquities that lie scattered around it has been collected, which Dr Lyall asserts is by far the best and most numerous in the south of Russia. The last ataman of the Tchernomorski Cossacks, it seems, had a passion for antiquities—a phenomenon that would have certainly startled Dr Clarke. The Emperor Nicholas has made his eldest son ataman of these Cossacks, as well as those of the Don, and, indeed, of all in the empire.]

† Yenikalé is compounded of two Turkish or Tartar words, signifying the *New Castle*.

‡ The name of this place would be more properly Taganrog.

hydra; but they knew nothing of the name of the hero, saying merely that it was the picture of a warrior once famous in Greece, and relating many extravagant tales of his valour, perhaps such as once formed the foundation of those poetic fables which ancient writers have handed down, with higher authority, to modern times. The heads of the young Greeks, both male and female, are full of such stories; and as they much delight in long recitals, these relations constitute the subject of their songs and discourses. In the islands are vagrant bards and *improvvisatori*, who, like Homer of old, enter villages and towns to collect alms, by singing or reciting the traditions of the country.

If we may judge of the Greeks in general, from the view we had of them in this part of the Crimea, they are remarkable for cleanliness, and for the attention paid to decency and order in their dwellings. The women are perhaps the most industrious housewives upon earth, and entirely the slaves of the family. Their cookery is simple and wholesome. We never saw them idle. They have no desire to go abroad; and if the employments of the house admit of their sitting down for a short time, they begin to spin, or to wind cotton. Yenikalé is almost wholly inhabited by Greeks. The men are for the most part absorbed in mercenary speculations, but the women are gentle, humane, obliging, and deserving of the highest praise.

The fortress of Yenikalé, from which the place has derived its present name, stands upon some high cliffs above the town. In one of its towers is a fountain, and the source whence it is derived supplies a conduit on the outside, near the base. The stream flows in by aqueducts, from a spring said by the inhabitants to be four miles distant, and it falls, at the bottom of the tower, into the cavity of an ancient marble soros, alluded to in the preceding chapter. This soros is of one entire block of white marble, of the weight of two or three tons, and now used as the public washing-trough of the town. They tell the story before related, concerning its discovery in one of the tombs of the Isle of Taman, and it is probably the cover of that to which Motraye refers in his journey from Taman to Temrook. From its inverted position, I was prevented noticing an inscription since discovered upon the top of it, and which I have not been able to obtain. We were assured by persons residing there, that when they began the excavations at Taman, for materials to build the fortress, the number of earthenware vases, and other antiquities, discovered by the workmen, was truly astonishing; that soldiers were seen with antique vessels suspended by a string, twenty or thirty at a time, which have since been broken and dispersed. Perhaps the reader is inclined with me to consider this part of the representation as greatly exaggerated. Our host, however, presented one small earthen vase, which a slave brought home, who had been employed with others in digging near the church at Yenikalé. They found a pit containing a stone sepulchre, of one entire mass, but of a cylindrical form, shaped like the mouth of a well, and covered by a slab of marble. In this cylinder they discovered an oval ball, the outside of which was a luting of white cement resembling mortar. When they had taken off this exterior crust, there appeared, within the ball, the small earthen vase I have mentioned, filled with ashes, and closed by a representation of Medusa's head, wrought in a substance similar to the cement which covered the vase. In their care to cleanse the vessel, they had destroyed almost every trace of some black figures upon its exterior surface. From the rude structure of this relic, and the manner of its interment, so different from the practice used by the Greeks at any known period of their history, or that of any other nation, it is impossible to determine what degree of antiquity it may possess. After the reflection, that full 1400 years before our era a commerce was carried on in this country, imagination may indulge in conjectures calculated indeed to enliven conversation, but ill suited to the tenor of writings whose aim is to illustrate, rather than to perplex, the pages of history.

About four miles from Yenikalé, towards the Mæotis, on a rock advanced in the sea, is the point on which the ancient Pharos formerly stood; and this spot is still called by the Greeks Phanari, and by the Russians Phanar, which in either language implies a lantern or lighthouse. The ruins of the old foundation are still visible. Tradition ascribes it to the time of Mithridates, and the modern Greeks generally bestow upon it the name of Phanari Mitridati. It was a work of peculiar necessity, although long abandoned; since vessels coming through the straits are obliged to keep close to the Crimean coast, for want of water towards the middle of the passage, as well as on the other side. Accidents frequently happen. A large Turkish merchant vessel ran aground upon the shallows in the southern extremity of the Bosporus while we were there; and one of the Russian frigates, passing up the straits, was three times stranded in view of Yenikalé.

The medals of the Bosporus are among the most rare in the cabinets of Europe. We collected a few in Yenikalé. Among these were certain of the Bosporian kings; viz. one of Pærisades, in very small bronze; one of Sauromates I., in bronze, of the middle size; two of Rhescuporis I., in small bronze; one of Mithridates II., rather larger; and others whose real history it would have been difficult to determine, if it had not been for the light thrown upon them by Sestini. We obtained also other bronze medals, which had evidently been derived from the same colony of Mysia; viz. an imperial medal of Galba, two of Justinian, and one of Licinius; also a Latin *autonome*, of great rarity, with the head of a Roman empress in front, having for the reverse an amphora, with the letters D. D., *Decreto Decurionum*. This last would have been wholly inexplicable to me, but for the observations of the learned Sestini upon one of a similar nature. Concerning the representation given from a fine silver tetradrachm of Mithridates the Great, and a small silver medal of Polemo I., it should be said, that the coins of these kings were not struck in Bosporus, neither were they found there. I procured them, after we left the Crimea, in the bazars of Constantinople.

In the short distance from Yenikalé to Kertchy, which is little more than eleven versts, or seven English miles, we observed upon the cliffs above the Bosporus many remains of ancient buildings; and the prodigious number of tumuli, which every where appeared, could only be compared to the nodules on the outside of a pine-apple. About half way on the right-hand side of the road appeared a stratum of limestone, hewn in a semicircular manner, so as to present an area, the sides of which were thirty feet perpendicular. In the middle of this area we found a deep well, hewn in the solid rock. The Tartar peasants near it assured us, that its sides were those of a vast cylinder of marble, buried in the soil; but it was evidently a channel bored through the rock. The work must have required great labour, the depth to the water being at least fifty feet, without including the farther depth of the well, which we were not able to ascertain. The Tartars draw water from it for their sheep and goats, by means of a leathern bucket.

The town of Kertchy, standing on the sight of the ancient Panticapæum, is now reduced to extreme wretchedness and insignificance. It was, not long since, of considerable consequence. The Russians, according to the statement made by several of its inhabitants, destroyed no less than 5000 houses.* Even in its ruins,

* [It is probable that Kertch never contained five thousand houses; and as Doctor Clarke himself mentions in a subsequent page, the number destroyed as five hundred, it is probable the greater number is a mere error. In the year 1822, Kertch remained in the condition described by Dr Clarke; but a plan for its improvement was then designed, which has been since executed. It is now a neat and well built town, with from 3000 to 4000 inhabitants; and from its advantageous situation for commerce, will very likely continue to increase. A quarantine establishment has been erected, which is spoken of as one of the most perfect of the kind, and where all vessels entering the sea of Azof are now compelled to perform quarantine. The only serious

the regal seat of the Bosporian kings, once the residence of Mithridates, will ever be considered an interesting, if not an important place, for the researches of the historian. Our first inquiry among the few Greeks settled there was for medals; and several were brought, but for the most part so much injured as to be scarcely worth notice.

The traditions of Kertchy are in direct contradiction of history; for they relate not only that Mithridates died here, but that he was buried a short distance from the town, where they still pretend to show his tomb.* It is perhaps a Milesian work; but its height and size are so remarkable, that it is scarcely possible to believe it the result of human labour. Among the Greek inhabitants of Kertchy, it bears the name of the Tomb of Mithridates. The Russians are not contented with showing his tomb; they also point out his palace, and conduct strangers for that purpose to the top of a natural hill or mountain above the town. They deceived General Suvarof to such a degree, when he visited the place, that being told it was the sepulchre of so great a hero, the veteran soldier knelt upon the ground and wept. We visited that which is pointed out by the Greeks; it is four versts distant from Kertchy, near the road leading to Caffa. The Tartars call it Altyn Obo, and have a tradition that it contains a treasure, guarded by a virgin, who here spends her nights in lamentations.† It stands on the most elevated spot in this part of the Crimea, and is visible for many miles round. One thing concerning this tumulus is very remarkable, and may confirm the notion entertained of its artificial origin. It is placed exactly upon the vallum which formed the inner barrier of the Bosporian empire. This work still exists in an entire state, having a fosse in front, and passing across this part of the Peninsula in a northerly direction from the Altyn Obo to the Sea of Azof. Several other similar heaps of astonishing size are situated near this tumulus, although it towers above them all, and the plains below are covered with others of smaller dimensions. There is yet another circumstance worthy of notice; beyond the vallum to the west there are no tumuli, although they are so numerous on its eastern side—that is to say, on the Bosporian territory—neither are they seen again, but very rarely, in all the journey towards Caffa; and before arriving at that place, they altogether disappear. Afterwards, proceeding to the site of Stara Crim,‡ they may again be noticed. The shape of the Altyn Obo is not so conical as usual in ancient tumuli—it is rather a semi-spheroid. Its sides present that stupendous masonry which is seen in the walls of Tiryns, near Argos, in the Morea, where immense unshapen masses of stone are placed together without cement, according to their accidental forms. The western part is entire, although the others have fallen. Looking through the interstices and yawning chasms of the tumulus, and examining the excavations made upon its summit, we found it, like the cairns of Scotland, to consist wholly of stones heaped together; but its exterior betrayed a more artificial construction, and exhibited materials of greater magnitude. It seems to have been the custom of the age in which these heaps were raised, to bring stones, or parcels of earth, from all parts of the country, to the tomb of a deceased sovereign, or near relation. To cast a stone upon a grave was an act of loyalty or piety; and a saying of friendship or affection in the north of Scotland still exists, which implies, "I will cast a stone upon thy cairn;" but the heap so raised consisted of heterogeneous substances—granite and limestone, fragments of volcanic rocks, pebbles from the sea-shore, and from the beds of rivers, promiscuously mixed, and frequently covered by superincumbent earth. Stones were generally used in preference to earth, perhaps as being more easily conveyed, and likely to render the heap more durable: in the Isle of Taman, where they were not easily procured, it is curious to observe the ingenuity used to preserve the tombs from decay: first by a massive and gigantic style of architecture in the vault; then by a careful covering of earth; further, by a layer of sea-weed, or the bark of trees, to keep out moisture; and, finally, by a stupendous heap of such materials as the country afforded. The stones of which the Altyn Obo consists are all of the same nature, and, I believe, all of them natural to the soil. On the eastern side of it is a pit, formed probably by some person who wished to penetrate the interior of this immense pile. The Tartars have tried to effect a passage, but the stones fall in upon them as they proceed, and render their labour vain. Yet they have a tradition, that an entrance was once accomplished, and pretend to describe the interior as a magnificent vaulted stone chamber, formed by enormous slabs, which seem as if they would crush the spectator. It is remarkable they should use an expression signifying *vaulted*, because it agrees with the style used in the interior of other tumuli upon the Asiatic side of the Bosporus, and thereby gives internal evidence of truth to their narrative; yet perhaps they derived the notion from similar appearances observed in other tombs which have been opened and subjected to their inspection.*

The view from the top of the Altyn Obo is one of the finest in the Crimea. A range of similar heaps continues along the lofty ridge on which this tumulus stands, the whole way to Kertchy, the last object being the high mountain on which stood the ancient citadel of the Bosporians—that is to say, upon the precipice above the sea, whence Mithridates threw the body of his son Xiphanes into the waves, as there is no other spot connected with the site of Panticapæum, which from its eminence illustrates the text of Appian, who says the deed was done in view of the mother on the other side of the Strait. The palace of Mithridates was in all probability a fortress, and the traces of its foundation are yet visible, near a small semicircular excavation in the rock, also a work of great antiquity. One of the tombs in the range I have mentioned, although not so large as that attributed to Mithridates, is equally remarkable. It is the nearest to the spectator in the series; the pretended tomb of Mithridates, or Altyn Obo, being the last towards the west, and immediately on the barrier or vallum, beyond which, as stated before, those monuments cease to appear. It was surrounded, near the vertex of its cone, with a circular wall of stones, placed regularly together, but without any cement. Part of it is still entire, and perhaps the whole was formerly covered by a dome, of which the wall was originally the base; for exactly such another wall surmounted the top of the tumulus, often called the Barrow of Achilles, in the plain of Troy. Beyond this ridge, and these tombs, the view comprehends the whole of the Cimmerian Bosporus,

drawback to the town is the entire want of wood in the vicinity, so that the inhabitants have to obtain fuel at a distance of 120 versts (eighty miles).—See SPENCER, vol. I. p. 238-241.]

* Mithridates, according to Appian, was buried by Pompey at Sinope, among the sepulchres of his ancestors.

† See Pallas's Travels, vol. II. p. 261. It is worthy of observation, that Pallas, being unable to reconcile this surprising tumulus with any reference to the real history of the interment of Mithridates, or his own notions of probability as an artificial heap, endeavours to account for it by a natural process.

‡ Probably, says Pallas, the ancient Cimmerium (Travels in the South of Russia, vol. II. p. 260); but there seems little reason for the conjecture.

* [This tumulus, so long called the Tomb of Mithridates, has at length been opened, and in some measure was found to justify its Tartar name, Altyn Obo, or Hill of Gold. An immense quantity of bronze gilt vases, gold ornaments and trinkets, were found, all of very fine workmanship, some of which are to be seen in the Museum at Kertch, but the most valuable of them have been removed to Petersburg. This treasure excited to fresh efforts, and another large tumulus was opened, but the contents were found to be simply a square trough of stone, with a wooden box in the centre containing a bronze urn of most elaborate workmanship. In this urn were found *ashes*—the remains of some hero or monarch, which the Russians sacrilegiously cast upon a dunghill! So avouches Spencer, an eye-witness!

Some others of the tumuli around Kertch had previously been opened by M. de Brücks, who found in them an arched entrance and regular apartments, in which he discovered several coins and medals. In some of them he also found bones. No researches are permitted without the sanction of the government.]

the harbour of Panticapæum, the opposite coast of Phanagoria, Prekla volcano, and a great variety of objects, among which, at the time we were there, the passing fleets of European and Asiatic merchants from all the ports of the Black Sea, the Archipelago, and the Mediterranean, were not the least interesting. On all the distant promontories towards the east, over all the plains below, and wherever else the eye could roam, except beyond the Bosporian vallum, appeared the ancient tumuli so often described. These tumuli, as well as the hills, were covered with wild thyme, which swarms of locusts were devouring. The earth seemed also alive with a species of toad, described by Pallas, called the *rana variabilis*, crawling up to the very summits of the highest hills. It has a smoother skin than the common toad, is smaller, more active, and covered with round spots, whose beauty lessens the disgust of beholding the most deformed and horrible reptile in such abundance.*

There is perhaps no place in the Crimea where the traveller will find so many antiquities, as in Kertchy. The peasants gladly exchange, for a few copeeks, the ancient coins which they have discovered in the soil; the walls of the town are full of broken and entire marbles, with bas-reliefs and inscriptions neglected or ruined. Some of the latter are used as steps before the doors of their houses, or serve, as at Yenikalé, among other materials for building. Many of the inhabitants have placed ancient Greek marbles over their doors by way of ornament, but without any knowledge of their real nature, or even common attention to the position of the figures; so that they are seen in all directions, sometimes lying sideways in a wall, or wholly inverted. A number of interesting relics of this kind were in imminent danger of disappearing for ever, when we arrived; for they had collected them as substances for the repairs of the church. I purchased three very remarkable slabs of antique marble, with the view of sending them to Cambridge; but a dispute arising among the proprietors concerning the division of the money, the bargain was set aside, and the marbles were detained. They have since been described in the work published by Pallas, after his travels in the south of Russia, where the reader will also find them accurately delineated. Mr Tweddell, of Trinity College, Cambridge, had recently visited this country, and he left with Professor Pallas his own beautiful transcripts of every inscription found here, from which documents they were published by the professor, but without any illustration; the world having lost, in Mr Tweddell's untimely death, and the subsequent disappearance of his journals at Constantinople in 1799, as yet unexplained, all the information his great acquirements enabled him to afford. Upon the bas-reliefs of the Bosporus, the remarkable representation of an equestrian figure, attended by a youth, is so often repeated, that it ought not to pass without observation; but it has hitherto received no explanation. Perhaps a passage in Herodotus may throw some light upon the subject. He relates, that the Scythians killed their slaves and finest horses, and after taking out their entrails, stuffed them with straw, and set them up as equestrian figures in honour of their kings.

It is from Panticapæum that the imaginary Anacharsis of Barthelemy is said to have embarked for his travels in Greece. Here also, in ancient times, stood a temple of Æsculapius, in which was preserved the vessel of brass mentioned in the Anthologia as having burst in consequence of a severe frost upon the Bosporus. If any future traveller should look for the site of that temple where the present church of Kertchy stands, he will not perhaps be far from the truth. Upon the introduction of Christianity, especially in countries where it wholly superseded the ancient superstitions, temples were almost always made subservient to the purposes of the new religion.

A Greek merchant at Kertchy applied to me to know if I would purchase the books and manuscripts of a person who had died there of a consumption some years before, and had been educated in England. He described the deceased as one who had employed all the latter part of his life in writing an account of the antiquities of the Crimea; who seldom conversed, but spent all his time in close application to his studies, and ultimately died of want, although he would not acknowledge his distress. We visited the cottage where his effects were preserved. Near a window lay an odd volume of Ariosto; and this we found to be the only book reserved for his last hours, all the rest being locked up by himself a short time before his death. In a corner of his miserable bed-room stood an English trunk, with its lock turned towards the wall. The old woman of the house said she was afraid to move it. When we had turned it, we found it sealed, and a paper fastened across the lock, with a long written inscription in modern Greek, purporting that the trunk should be sent unopened to his brother in Constantinople; which we immediately ordered to be done. The inscription ended with menacing the vengeance of all the saints and devils to the wretch who should dare to break the seal, and inspect the contents of the trunk.

Entering the fortress, now a ruin, we saw before the gate a beautiful marble fountain, said to be the work of Turks, but composed of ancient materials, some of which exhibited Turkish characters, and others Greek inscriptions of more remote date. Over the entrance is one of the large marble lions mentioned in a former page, the devices of Venice or Genoa; and marble columns, with fragments of marble entablatures, lie scattered about, either upon the ground, or among the stones used in erecting the walls. Within this fortress stands the church, a small building of considerable antiquity. The pictures suspended on its walls are among the earliest productions of Grecian art brought into the Russian empire, and probably coëval with the introduction of Christianity. Four marble pillars, of the Corinthian order, support the roof of this building; and, according to an inscription upon one of them, the church was erected in the year after Adam 6265, which answers to 757 of our era; a building, therefore, of high antiquity in the history of Christianity, and proving the extent of its circulation in that early period. There are two smaller pillars of the same kind placed above them. The priests showed me a copy of the Gospels, of still more remote date, written in capital letters, upon vellum, quite black with age and use. It had been long abandoned in the service of the church, and a printed version had supplied its place. The priests would gladly have sold it, and I should with equal gladness have purchased it; but as soon as the Russian police heard of my intention, its removal was prohibited, although its destruction was inevitable where it lay, and perhaps while this is writing it exists no more.

The havoc made in all the towns of the Crimea, during the various revolutions, and frequent change of inhabitants the country has sustained, has confused or annihilated almost every valuable document, for the illustration of its former history. But of all the people who have hitherto scourged this devoted land, none have proved so injurious to the interests of literature as the Russians. I dare not mention the high authority on which the traits of their national character were delivered to me, at the time I am conducting this part of my journal. It is sufficient to say, one, who best knew them, affirmed that there was no characteristic of a Russian more striking, than that of wantonly destroying whatever is prized by enlightened nations. In Kertchy, after levelling to the earth 500 houses, they left about thirty poor shops in the midst of the ruins, whose owners it is their daily practice to defraud. False in all their public engagements, as well as in their private treaties, they issued an ukase, inviting Greek merchants to settle in the town; but no sooner had these deluded people fixed there with their families, than the soldiers pulled down the houses about their ears, using at the same time other intimidating measures to compel them to higher duties, than any even of the Russians themselves have paid, to whom no exemptions had been accorded. Thus insulted and plundered, the oppressed Greeks demanded permission to leave the

* The *rana risatoria* is also found frequently in this part of the Crimea.

peninsula, which was positively refused. It may be asked why so little has been hitherto made public concerning the real character of this very profligate people —to which the answer is, that there is no country where such pains have been employed to prevent it. There is nothing in which the late Catherine employed so much artifice, as in keeping secret the true history of her own people, and the wretched state of her empire. This is evident in all her correspondence with Voltaire, in all her instructions to her ministers, in the glaring falsehoods published by her hired writers, but particularly in the work she with her agents put together, in answer to the writings of the Abbé de la Chappe. A party of her *savans* were engaged to accompany her in a voyage down the Volga; as they sailed along she caused that work to be read, every one present being called upon to contribute something, either of smart criticism or contradictory remark; and the notes so collected being afterwards put together by the celebrated Mushin Puskin, constituted the work which bears the title of "The Antidote." I received this information from one of the persons who were present with her upon that occasion, and who also added his share to the undertaking. Nothing can be more deceitful than the glare which played about the court of Petersburg in the time of Catherine. Pompous plans of improvement seemed to be the subject of daily conversation, and were industriously propagated in foreign countries, not one of which were carried into effect. They existed only upon paper, like the troops which Russia often affects to muster upon her frontiers, or like the numerous governments and garrisons, whose names serve to occupy the void spaces upon the maps of her desolate territories.

Could there be found a native of Russia, with a passion for literature, who to a knowledge of the Tartar language added also that of the modern Greek (and many of the Russians speak both these languages with fluency), the Crimea would not remain long in the obscurity which at present involves its ancient topography. Unfortunately all those whom Catherine employed to travel through her dominions for purposes of science, were either solely occupied in natural history, or employed, more politically, in preparing splendid statistical accounts of the most wretched provinces.* Almost all of them were destitute of any classical information. Pallas's first and favourite study was zoology, afterwards he cultivated mineralogy, botany, and entomology. When he came to reside in the Crimea, he was too far advanced in years, and too weak in health, to dedicate his hours to other pursuits, or he might have contributed largely to our stock of information. Hitherto, that which has been published concerning the geography and antiquities of the Crimea, has been written by persons who never visited the country. Those who have visited it were unfortunately neither geographers nor antiquaries.

We left Kertchy, and proceeded towards Caffa. After the second station we passed another ancient boundary or vallum, like that which has been described before, on which may be discerned the traces of turrets that were placed along this second barrier of the Bosporians. In all this route we found no other dwellings than Tartar huts, with earth floors, the entrance to which was so low that we could scarcely gain admittance, without creeping upon all-fours. The post here is worse regulated than in any other part of the empire; but if we hired the horses of the peasants, we found them to be strong, fleet, and beautiful, as Arabian coursers. The martens build their nests in the little chambers of the Tartars, and are encouraged to do so all over the Crimea, even in the best families, because they prevent flies from being troublesome. The roads, which in dry weather are excellent, now became, in consequence of rain, almost impassable for our carriage, the turf upon the steppes peeling off in large flakes, and adhering to the wheels with such weight, that they were often entirely clogged, and we could not proceed without clearing them.

We passed several ruined mosques; and a few Turkish and Tartar tombs appeared occasionally near the road. They were distinguished by small stone pillars, with a turban sculptured on the top; and sometimes they contained upon their shafts inscriptions in the Turkish or Tartarian language. We now began to perceive the truth of those surprising relations which we had often heard and read concerning the locust, in countries infested with that insect. The steppes were entirely covered by their bodies; and their numbers falling resembled flakes of snow, carried obliquely by the wind, and spreading a thick mist over the sun. Myriads fell over the carriage, the horses, and the drivers. The stories of these animals told us by the Tartars, were more marvellous than any we had before heard. They said, that instances had occurred of persons being suffocated by a fall of locusts in the steppes. It was now the season, they farther added, in which their numbers began to diminish. When they first make their appearance, a thick dark cloud is seen very high in the air, which, as it passes, obscures the sun. I had always supposed the stories of the locust to exaggerate their real appearance, but found their swarms so astonishing in all the steppes over which we passed in this part of our journey, that the whole face of nature might have been described as concealed by a living veil. They were of two kinds, the *gryllus tartaricus*, and the *gryllus migratorius*, or common migratory locust. The first is almost twice the size of the second, and, since it precedes the other, bears the name of the herald or messenger. The migratory locust has red legs, and its inferior wings have a lively red colour, which gives a bright fiery appearance to the animal, when fluttering in the sun's rays. The strength of limbs possessed by it is amazing: when pressed down by the hand upon a table, it has almost power to raise the fingers; but this force resides wholly in the legs, for, if one of these be broken off, which happens by the slightest accident, the power of action ceases. There is yet a third variety of locust, *gryllus viridissimus* of Linnæus, found near the Don and the Kuban, which is entirely of a green colour. This last I have since seen upon the banks of the Cam, in my own country, and felt for the moment intimidated, lest such a presage should be the herald of the dreadful scourge which the locust bears wherever it abounds.* On whatever spot these animals fall, the whole vegetable produce disappears. Nothing escapes them, from the leaves of the forest to the herbs of the plain. Fields, vineyards, gardens, pasture, every thing, is laid waste; and sometimes the only appearance left upon the naked soil is a disgusting superficies caused by their putrifying bodies, the stench of which is sufficient to breed a pestilence. There can be no necessity for any farther account of an animal so often described. We collected almost all the insects of the Crimea; among them are some of the locust kind without wings, and others differing only in trifling distinctions more interesting to

* Professor Pallas was among the number of those who became victims to the consequences of their own too favourable representations. Having published his *Tableau de la Tauride*, printed at Petersburg in 1796, in which he describes the Crimea as a terrestrial paradise, the empress sent him to reside there upon an estate which she gave him, and where we found him, as he himself confessed, in a pestilential air, the dupe of the sacrifice he had made to gratify his sovereign.

* In the year 593, many countries were afflicted by famine in consequence of ravages committed by locusts. In 677, Syria and Mesopotamia were overrun by them. In 852, they migrated from the eastern countries, and, after devastating whole regions in the west, were driven by winds into the Belgic ocean. In 1271, all the corn near Milan was destroyed by them, and in the year 1339, all the fields of Lombardy were laid waste. In 1541, they penetrated to Poland and Wallachia; in 1673, some swarms settled in Wales, and in 1748, fell in several parts of England, particularly in the neighbourhood of London. (Shaw's Zoology, vol. VI. part I. pp. 136–137.) The best method of destroying them would be to recommend them as an article of food. In the Crimea they are often eaten by the inhabitants. Some French emigrants, who had been directed in this manner, assured me that, when fried, they were very palatable and very wholesome. The Arabs, according to Hasselquist, eat them roasted, and are glad to get them.

the entomologist than to the general reader. But there are insects which infest the peninsula, and which merit more particular notice, on account of the danger to which they may expose an unsuspecting traveller. These are of three kinds: the two first of which, from their external appearance, seem both to be spiders; but, according to naturalists, only one belongs to the genus *aranea*; namely, the large black tarantula, known in many parts of the south of Italy, and long famous there on account of giving its name to a dance, said to prove a remedy for its bite, which might otherwise prove fatal. This animal attains a fearful size in the Crimea. I caught one of them with a pair of tongs; when extended in a natural posture upon a table, it embraced by its claws a circumference whose diameter equalled nearly three inches. The other, although smaller, is much more formidable. Professor Pallas named it *phalangium araneoïdes*. It is of a yellowish colour, looking like a large spider, whose legs are covered with hair. In front it has a pair of claspers, which bear some resemblance to lobster's claws. Pallas assured me, that its bite had proved fatal, in instances to which he had himself borne testimony. Fortunately, it is very rare. I preserved one for some time in spirits; but the specimen was destroyed in its passage home. The third kind of insect terrible on account of its bite is the *centipede*, or *scolopendra morsitans*. This pernicious animal is very common in dry timber, beneath stones, and in fissures of the earth, in warm situations. Scorpions also are found in the mountains.

Strabo describes all the country between Theodosia (Caffa) and Panticapæum (Kertchy) as rich in corn and full of inhabitants. In the villages we found parties of the *tzigankies*, or gipsies, encamped as we see them in England, but having their tents stationed between the waggons in which they move about the country. Poultry, cats, dogs, and horses, were feeding all around them, seeming like members of the same family. The gipsies are much encouraged by the Tartars, who allow them to encamp in the midst of their villages, where they exercise the several functions of smiths, musicians, and astrologers. Many of them are wealthy, possessing fine horses and plenty of other cattle; but their way of life, whether they be rich or poor, is always the same. One of the waggons of a party to whom we paid a visit was occupied by an enormous drum, which they accompany with a pipe when performing before the village dancers. The sound of this drum was the loudest I ever heard; and, though intimidating, was nevertheless musical. Strabo mentions the drum as an instrument common to the ancient Cimbri, and notices its intimidating sound. In their tents the men sat stark naked among the women. They rose, however, as we entered, and cast a sheep's hide over their bodies. The filth and stench of this people were abominable; and almost all of them had the itch to such a degree, that their limbs were covered with blotches and scabs.

The property of Tartar gentlemen consists chiefly in cattle. Thousands are seen in the steppes, often the property of a single man; and among these we noticed many hundred camels. The Tauridan camel is represented in Pallas's Travels, from a drawing by Geisler of Leipsic. It has a double hump upon its back. The author says, the camel grows larger in the Crimea than among the Calmuck Tartars—a circumstance of no moment, but directly contradicted by the notes in my journal: the camels in the territory of the Don Cossacks, and near the camps of the Calmucks, appeared to me to be much larger than those of the Crimea. They are used by the Tartars in drawing covered waggons with four wheels, called *madshari*, in which they convey their families. The price of a full-grown camel, in the Crimea, seldom exceeds a sum equivalent to twelve pounds of our money. Tartar gentlemen go armed on horseback, and ride remarkably well. Their religion, being Mahometan, consists in nearly the same ceremonies observed among the Turks. At mid-day the priest of every village, after washing his head, feet, and hands, proceeds with his beads slowly to the mosque, where, having performed his devotions, he ascends to the top of the minaret, singing out, as loud as he can bawl, in a drawling tone, the well-known invocation, "God is God, and Mahomet is his prophet." The dress of the Tartars, particularly among the higher ranks of the men, is plain and simple. It preserves the oriental form, but without that contrast and variety of colour, which gives such splendour to the habits of Turks, Poles, and Tchernomorski Cossacks. A Tartar prince is generally seen in a habit of light drab cloth, with a cap of grey wool, and yellow or drab-coloured boots. Perhaps the costume was more magnificent under the government of their khans; it might be injudicious, and perhaps dangerous, now to make a parade of laced clothes and expensive embroidery, since the smallest evil to which they would be exposed in their journies, is that of plunder from the Russians.

In the last stage from Kertchy to Caffa, we passed the third, that is to say, the outer vallum or boundary of the Bosporians, which separated their peninsula from the country of the Tauri. Its remains, as well as those of the towers placed thereon, were very visible. This wall extends from the Sea of Azof, beginning eastward of a place now called Arabat, to the mountains behind Caffa; it is mentioned by Strabo, who states from Hypsicrates, that it was constructed by Asander, 360 stadia in length, having at every stadium a turret. This description agrees with its present appearance; the distance from the Sea of Azof is not so great, but the oblique direction of the wall makes its length equal that which Strabo has given.* Constantine Porphyrogenetes has afforded a more explicit account of the boundaries of the Bosporians. According to that author, the Sarmatians, in possession of the Bosporian territory, gave war to the Chersonites, respecting the limits of their empire. The Chersonites were victorious in a battle fought near Caffa; and by the treaty of peace, made on the spot, it was determined that the limits of the Bosporian empire should not extend beyond Caffa. Afterwards, the Sarmatians, under another leader, protested against this boundary, and, giving battle to the Chersonites, were again defeated. Pharnacus, king of the Chersonites, then contracted the Bosporian limits still more, and placed their boundary at Cybernicus, leaving them only forty miles of territory; "and these boundaries," observes the author, "remain to this day." From that period the Bosporus was lost to the Sarmatians. Pharnacus retained some of them to cultivate the land, and sent others to their own country; the latter, for this kindness, inscribed a pillar to him, which perhaps still remains among the antiquities of Kertchy.

We now arrived upon the beautiful Bay of Caffa, supposed to have been Theodosia. The town appeared covering the southern side of it, and rising like a vast theatre, with its numerous mosques and minarets, over all the hills which enclose that part of the bay. Many vessels were at anchor near the place, and, notwithstanding the destruction of buildings by the Russians, it still wore an aspect of some importance. In former times it obtained and merited the appellation of the Lesser Constantinople; containing 36,000 houses within its walls, and, including the suburbs, not less than 44,000.

CHAPTER XIX.

FROM CAFFA TO THE CAPITAL OF THE CRIMEA.

Fifty families are at present the whole population of the once magnificent town of Caffa; and in some instances a single house is found to contain more than one family. The melancholy devastation committed by the Russians, while it draws tears down the cheeks of the Tartars, and extorts many a sigh from the Anatolian Turks, who resort to Caffa for commercial purposes, cannot fail to excite the indignation of every enlightened people. At Caffa, during the time we remained, the soldiers were allowed to overthrow the beautiful mosques, or to convert them into magazines,

* Allowing eight stadia to the English mile, its length would equal forty-five miles.

to pull down the minarets, tear up the public fountains, and to destroy all the public aqueducts, for the sake of a small quantity of lead, which they were thereby enabled to obtain. Such is the true nature of Russian drotection; such the sort of alliance which Russians endeavour to form with every nation weak enough to submit to their power, or to become their dupe. While these works of destruction were going on, the officers were amusing themselves in beholding the mischief. Tall and stately minarets, whose lofty spires added such grace and dignity to the town, were daily levelled with the ground; which, besides their connection with religious establishments, for whose maintenance the integrity of the Russian empire had been pledged, were of no other value to their destroyers than to supply a few soldiers with bullets,* or their officers with a dram. I was in a Turkish coffee-house at Caffa, when the principal minaret, one of the ancient and characteristic monuments of the country, to which the Russians had been some days employed in fixing blocks and ropes, came down with such violence that its fall shook every house in the place. The Turks seated on the divans were all smoking, and when that is the case, an earthquake will scarcely rouse them; nevertheless, at this flagrant act of impiety and dishonour, they rose, breathing out deep and bitter curses against the enemies of their prophet. Even the Greeks, who were present, testified their anger by similar imprecations. One of them, turning to me, and shrugging his shoulders, said, with a countenance of contempt and indignation, "Scythians!" which I found afterwards to be a common term of reproach; for though the Greeks profess the same religion as the Russians, they detest the latter as cordially as do the Turks, or Tartars.† The most lamentable part of the injury thus sustained has been in the destruction of the conduits and public fountains, which conveyed, together with the purest waters from distant mountains, a source of health and comfort to the people. They first carry off the leaden pipes in order to make bullets; then they take down all the marble slabs and large stones for building materials, which they employ in the construction of barracks; lastly, they blow up the channels which convey water, because, they say, the water porters cannot earn a livelihood where there are public fountains. Some of those fountains were of great antiquity, and beautifully decorated with marble reservoirs, as well as by bas-reliefs and inscriptions. In all Mahometan countries it is considered an act of piety to preserve and to adorn the public aqueducts. Works of that nature once appeared in almost every street of Caffa; some were public washing places; others poured out streams of water as clear as crystal for allaying the thirst of the inhabitants, and for ablutions prior to going to the mosques. They were nearly all demolished when we arrived.

The sculptured marbles of its ancient Grecian inhabitants had not shared a better fate. All that even Mahometans had spared of bas-reliefs, of inscriptions, or architectural pillars, were broken by the Russians, and sold as materials to construct their miserable barracks. We found the identical marbles described by Oderico, broken and exposed for sale in the ruins of the old Genoese fortress. These were of peculiar interest, because they related to the history of the town. It was in vain that we solicited to become purchasers; the request was immediately denied by the general officer. "Strangers," he said, "are not permitted to take any thing out of the country." In a short time nothing will remain in Caffa but the traces of desolation which its Russian conquerors may leave behind them. It has experienced such a variety of revolutions, and so many different masters, that, even in better times, when it was under the Mahometan dynasty, few monuments remained of an earlier date than the establishment of the Genoese colony in the fifteenth century. At the entrance of the city, near an edifice which was once a mint, are some ruins which may perhaps have belonged to the ancient Theodosia. They appeared to be of remote date. For the rest, it must be observed, there does not exist in the place any thing which might lead to a conjecture that such a city ever existed. An inscription in the walls of the fortress proves that it was completed so late as the year 1474, the very year of the capture of the city by the Turks, under Mahomet II.; and the earliest date of any inscription we could find, was not prior to the end of the fourteenth century. We obtained one in the Armenian language, the letters of which were beautifully sculptured in relief upon a slab of white marble. That inscription is now in the Vestibule of the University Library of Cambridge, and the translation of it appears in the account published there of the Greek Marbles. It merely commemorates work done to one of the churches of Caffa in the year 1400.

The distribution of the buildings in Caffa may be accurately ascertained. On the southern side stood the Genoese citadel, the walls of which still remain, and the traces of its streets within the enclosure are visible; besides, there are numerous subterranean chambers and spacious magazines, of the most massive and gigantic style of architecture. Several inscriptions remain in the walls, which, from their elevated situation, have hitherto escaped injury. The rest of this enclosure offers a promiscuous heap of ruins, daily becoming more confused.

The opposite side of the city was the residence of the Tartars, and this part is now inhabited. Centrally situated between the two, and somewhat elevated on the hills above them, stood that portion of the city which was inhabited by the Armenians—it is a scene of ruins, like the quarter which the Genoese possessed. If Theodosia ever stood upon the site of the present town of Caffa, it must have covered the ground since tenanted by the Armenian and Tartar establishments, and occupied all the shore to the north-east. As far as my own observations carry me, I have never yet been satisfied as to the fact that Theodosia and Caffa stood upon the same spot.

On the elevated territory above the Tartar city, close to the walls of the old Armenian fortress, is a circular building, very like those ruined edifices upon the coast of Baia, near Naples, which, though generally called temples, are more probably remains of the baths of the ancients. It is now a ruin; but, in taking down part of the stucco which loosely adhered to the wall, there appeared beneath, a beautiful covering of coloured plaster, exactly resembling that which is found in Pompeïa, and in Herculaneum. The Armenians, who had probably converted this building into a place of worship, found it necessary to conceal its pagan ornaments. In the centre of the old pavement of this building, a very curious bas-relief was discovered a few days only prior to our arrival. It was sculptured upon a kind of cippus, in a very rude manner, the subject being divided into two parts, above and below. In the upper part appeared two crowned heads, and in the lower a staircase was represented conducting to the mouth of a stone sepulchre. I endeavoured to prevail on the guides to follow the clue thus offered, and to search for the staircase so represented below the spot in which the stone itself was found. This they refused to do.

The remaining buildings of Caffa are, for the most part, within the Tartar city. They consist of very magnificent public baths and mosques, all of which are in a

* The Russian troops are obliged to provide themselves with lead.

† The mild and amiable Pallas, notwithstanding the awe under which he was kept by the Russian government, could not pass in silence the destruction of these beautiful buildings. It is interesting to remark the caution with which he suppresses his indignation while he communicates the fact. "When I caused," says he, "the prospect of this town (Caffa) to be drawn from the side next the bay, there were two minarets, sixteen fathoms high, and furnished with serpentine staircases leading to the top; though *both structures have since been demolished.*" Had the professor ventured two syllables further, if he had merely added the word *alas!* his grey hairs would not have saved him from what the archbishop of Moscow so emphatically styled "the free air of Siberia." Indeed, few would have ventured even to mention the circumstance. Such considerations make a Briton feel sensibly the blessings of the constitution under which he lives.

ruined state; a few minarets, the last of which is perhaps by this time prostrate; some shops; the Turkish coffee-house; an unfinished palace of the late Khan of the Crimea; and a large stone edifice, before alluded to, which was once a mint. I cannot leave my account of this place without noticing a very prevalent error, into which Pallas himself has fallen in his account of the Crimea. It is, that a species of Fuller's earth, dug in several parts of the Crimea, as well as in Anatolia, and called *keff-kil*, has been so denominated from Caffa, and that it signifies *Caffa earth*. The real etymology of the name may be seen at any time, by a reference to Meninski's Oriental Dictionary—it is derived from two Turkish words, which imply *foam*, or *froth*, of the *earth*.*

Our journey from Caffa, as before we reached it, was continually over steppes. We saw upon our left—that is to say, towards the south—that ridge of mountains which covers the coast of the Crimea; but unless a traveller follows the sinuosities of the southern shore of the peninsula, all the rest of the country is as flat as Salisbury Plain. The whole district from Yenikalé to Aktiar, except the situation of the town of Baktcheserai, presents a most insipid landscape, consisting of a flat common, covered with grass and locusts—capable, it is true, of the highest cultivation, but entirely neglected. The Tartars and the Greeks refuse to cultivate the land, because they fear to be plundered by the Russians, and the Russians are too indolent and too stupid to think of the advantages of industry.

After we had passed a tedious distance over this kind of territory, the road gradually drew nearer to the mountains; and the appearance of ancient tumuli, increasing as we advanced, proved that we were in the vicinity of some ancient city. It was Stara Crim, the approach to which is by a bold valley, or defile, formed by a mountain detached from the southern ridge. A variety of beautiful shrubs and trees sprout among the ruins, and the mountains are themselves covered with brushwood. Passing a bridge, whose massive masonry resembled the style of labour used by the ancient Etruscans in the walls of Crotona, we were surrounded by the remains of mosques, baths, and a profusion of mouldering edifices, some of which still retained marks of great magnificence. We entered a building still entire. It consisted of one large area, covered by a beautiful dome, surrounded by eight smaller chambers; and its walls were of ancient stucco coloured in distemper. Thus it offered exactly the style of architecture seen in the temples of Venus and Diana at Baia, in Italy; and I entertain no doubt but that those buildings were originally public baths belonging to that fashionable watering-place of the ancient Romans. The pipes and steam channels were visible when I was in Italy some years ago; and particularly in the bath called the Temple of Venus, every appearance corresponded with the public baths of the eastern empire. At the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, its conquerors preserved the sumptuous baths which they found in the city, and which to this day offer a model of the very edifices to which I allude. The ceremonies, the uses, and abuses of the bath, were so generally adopted, and prevailed with so little alteration among the ancient heathens, that there is reason to believe they were practised, with hardly any variety, by the inhabitants of Italy, of Greece, and the more oriental nations. The sculpture and painting visible in those edifices, were frequently employed in licentious and detestable representations, such as were consistent with the orgies by which public bagnios were degraded; and those who are at a loss to reconcile the pictured abominations of Baia with the solemnities of a temple, may perhaps more easily account for their appearance as ornaments of a pagan bath.

In the midst of these very picturesque ruins, sheltered by the mountains, and shaded by beautiful trees, stands one of those villas which were erected for the Empress Catherine when she visited the Crimea. At every place in which she halted for repose, or was expected to pass a night, she found a palace prepared for her reception. Many of them are still kept up, and others, like this at Stara Crim, suffered to fall into decay. They generally consisted of a bed-room for the empress, with a bath adjoining, a ball-room, a small chapel, and a few other apartments for her guards and attendants. Nothing at present interrupts the melancholy solitude of her villa at Stara Crim. Some of the chambers were filled by heaps of the common liquorice root, collected for the use of the military hospitals from the neighbouring woods, where it grows wild and attains great perfection. On the mountains to the south of this place, in one of those wild and secluded situations where zealous devotees delight to dwell, is an Armenian monastery, concerning which we could obtain no other information, than that it was worth seeing on account of the surrounding scenery.

As we left Stara Crim to proceed on our journey towards Karasubazar, we passed another vallum still very perfect; and, from the distance to which it extends, it must have been once a boundary of great importance. It probably was one of those which separated the Tauro-Scythians from the colonies established in the Crimea. Hence, crossing continued steppes, and always over a flat country, with the view of the mountains towards the south, we came to Kurasubazar.* Before we reached this place, a very remarkable mountain appeared on our right hand, flat at the top, and surrounded by precipices so perpendicular, and with such even surfaces, that it seemed like a work of art intended for a prodigious fortress. On the summit of this mountain the Tartars held their councils during the last rebellion against their khan; this extraordinary place being considered by them as the appointed rendezvous in every crisis. It was indeed a situation well suited for such a meeting; and a most sublime picture might have been afforded for the pencil of a Salvator, or a Mortimer, when the rebel chiefs, mounted on their fleet coursers, and attended by their chosen bands in the savage dresses of the country, held communication there.

Karasubazar has not suffered so much as other towns of the Crimea since its conquest by the Russians; yet it exhibits many ruins, sad memorials of their dominion, which, with a long street of shops, are perhaps all that a traveller would notice. The Tartar cemeteries have been divested of their tomb-stones, and these have been broken or hewn so as to constitute materials for building; although the country affords most excellent limestone, which might be removed from the quarries with almost as little trouble as the destruction of the gravestones occasions to the Russians. Many of the houses in the place have been erected with bricks which have never been burned, but merely formed in a mould, and afterwards hardened by exposure to the sun and air. In this way the ancient Grecians sometimes fabricated vessels of earthenware, when they wished to present offerings of the purest clay in the temples of their gods. All the commodities of the Crimea are said to be purchased at a cheaper rate in Karasubazar than in any other market of the peninsula. The principal shops are employed in the sale of leather, particularly of the Morocco kind, which they prepare themselves, pottery, hard-ware, soap, candles, fruit, and vegetables. The number of inhabitants amounts to about 3700, male and female—a population which includes a very mixed race

* [Kaffa is in a somewhat better condition than when seen by Dr Clarke. Count Romantzoff, who for many years has been governor-general of South Russia, has done all in his power to restore the old towns of the Crimea to something like their ancient splendour. But Kaffa is not likely to become an important town, as Kertch possesses greater facilities for commerce. In 1820, Mrs Holderness conceived Kaffa to possess 5000 inhabitants, but this is considered an exaggeration by Dr Lyall. Mr Spencer, its most recent visitor, does not mention the population, but states its commerce to be very trifling.]

* The distinctions of *black* and *white water* seem to constitute many of the appellations of rivers and lakes in all Mahometan countries. *Kara Su Bazar* signifies nothing more than the *Black Water Market*; the name of a river, which is called *Kara Su*, or *Black Water*, being joined to *bazar*, the common word for *market*.

of Tartars, Russians, Greeks, Jews, Italians, and Armenians.*

From Karasubazar we came to Akmetchet, the residence of the governor-general of the Crimea. The Russians, since the peninsula came into their hands, have endeavoured to give it the name of Sympheropol, but I never heard it called by any other appellation in the country than that which it received from the Tartars. This place was once beautiful from the numerous trees that filled the valley through which the Salgir flows, but the Russians have laid all waste. Scarcely a bush now remains. It will, however, be long celebrated as the residence of Professor Pallas, so well known to the literary world for his long travels, and already so often mentioned in this volume. His fame would have been sufficiently established if he had published no other work than that which he began under such favourable auspices, the "Flora Rossica;" and yet the barbarity of the people with whom he is compelled to live is such, that they will not allow him to complete the undertaking. The drawings were all finished, and almost all the text. To his hospitable and humane attentions we were indebted for comforts, equal, if not superior, to those of our own country, and for every literary communication which it was in his power to supply. When we delivered our letters of recommendation to him, he received us more like a parent, than a stranger to whose protection we had been consigned. We refused to intrude by occupying apartments in his house, which had more the air of a palace than the residence of a private gentleman; but when we were absent one day upon an excursion, he caused all our things to be moved, and upon our return we found a suite of rooms prepared for our reception, with every convenience for study and repose. I may consider myself as indebted to him even for my life. The fatigue of travelling, added to the effect of bad air and unwholesome food, rendered a quartan fever so habitual to me, that had it not been for his care and skill, I must have sunk under it. He prescribed for me, administered every medicine with his own hands, carefully guarded my diet, and, after nursing me as his own son, at last restored me to health. When I recovered, he ransacked all his collection for drawings, charts, maps, books, antiquities, minerals, and whatever else might forward the object of our travels; accompanied us upon the most wearisome excursions, in search not only of the insects and plants of the country, but also of every document which might illustrate either its ancient or its modern history. His decline of life has been embittered by a variety of unmerited affliction, which he has borne even with Stoical philosophy. Splendid as his residence appeared, the air of the place was so bad, that the most rigid abstinence from all sorts of animal food was insufficient to preserve the inhabitants from fevers. We left him determined to pass the remnant of his days in cultivating vineyards among the rocks upon the south coast of the peninsula. There was reason to hope, that by the death of Paul he might have been called to honours and emoluments; but subsequent travellers in Russia do not furnish intelligence so creditable to the administration of the new sovereign. When the late Empress Catherine sent him to reside in the Crimea, with a grant of lands in the peninsula, it was intended for the re-establishment of his health, and as a reward for his long services; neither of which purposes has been accomplished. A splendid establishment in the midst of unwholesome air has been all the recompense he has obtained. Thus it is, that we find him in the sixtieth year of a life devoted to science, opening his last publication with an allusion to "the disquietude and hardships which oppress him in his present residence, and embitter his declining days." We used every endeavour to prevail upon him to quit the country, and accompany us to England; but the advanced period of his life, added to the certainty of losing all his property in Russia, prevented his acquiescence. The ceremony of his daughter's marriage with a German officer took place during our residence with him in the Crimea, and was celebrated according to the rites of the Greek church; so that, as he was absolved from almost every tie which ought to have confined him to the country, there was some reason to hope he would have listened to our proposals, by acceding to which his life might be prolonged, and his publications completed. Our entreaties, however, were to no effect.

Owing to the interest of Professor Pallas, much of the injury had been prevented which Akmetchet, in common with other towns of the Crimea, would have sustained. Many of the Tartar buildings had been suffered to remain, and the public fountains were still unimpaired. The place owed all its importance to the circumstance of its being the residence of the governor-general of the Crimea, a veteran officer of the name of Michelson, formerly well known for the service he rendered to Russia, in the defeat of the rebel Pugatchef. In other respects, it is one of the worst situations in the Crimea. Its inhabitants are subject to frequent fevers during the summer, and the water is not so good as in other parts of the peninsula. Fruit and vegetables, which are so common in the southern villages, can only be procured by purchase from the Tartars. As a town, it has a mean and insignificant appearance; the streets are narrow, unpaved, and filthy, with a few shops maintained entirely by Greeks. The Salgir, which, except in rainy seasons, hardly deserves the name of a river, flows in the valley, on one side of which the town stands. The neighbourhood abounds with game, so that the officers of the garrison are enabled to amuse themselves with almost every kind of European chase. They hunt the stag, the fox, and the hare. Hawking is also a favourite pursuit, the Tartars being very skilful in training birds for that purpose. A few days after we took up our residence with Professor Pallas, some Tartars brought him a beautiful little animal, which has been called *the jumping hare*, and borne a variety of names; but is in fact the same as the African jerboa. We saw it afterwards in Egypt, and it is not common either there or in the Crimea. It may be called the kangaroo in miniature, as it has the same form, although it is smaller than a rabbit, and it assists itself like the kangaroo with its tail in leaping. That which Professor Pallas received was a pregnant female, containing two young ones. Its colour was light grey, except the belly, which was almost white. The fore-feet of this animal are attached to its breast without any legs, so that in all its motions it makes use only of its hind quarters, bounding and making surprising leaps whenever it is disturbed. Afterwards we caught one in the steppes, which we stuffed and brought to England. Professor Pallas himself did not seem to be aware that the *mus jaculus*, which was the name he gave it, is the animal mentioned by Shaw in his account of Barbary; nor was it until we became enabled to make the comparison ourselves in Africa, that we discovered the jerboa to be the same kind of quadruped we had before known in the Crimea. Bochart supposes this little animal to be the *saphan* of the Scriptures. "The high hills are a refuge for the wild goats, and so are the stony rocks for the *saphannim*," which our translation renders "*conies*." Shaw is however undecided upon this point, but supposes the jerboa, from the remarkable disproportion of his fore and hinder legs, may be taken for one of the two-footed rats mentioned by Herodotus and other authors. The whole merit of either of these observations, if there be any, is due, first to the learned Bochart, and afterwards to the labours of Haym, in the illustration of a medal of Cyrene, upon which this animal appears, although Shaw, after the introduction of those observations in his work, not only does not acknowledge whence he derived the information, but even asserts that the animal described by Haym was not the jerboa. It seems pretty clear that it was, although in the engraving published by Haym the fore-feet are represented rather too long. A century ago they did not pay the attention to minute accuracy in

* [Karasubazar contains now nearly 5000 inhabitants. As a proof of the strange mixture of creeds in the town, it may be stated that there are about twenty mosques, a Greek church, a Roman Catholic church, a Russian church, an Armenian church, and a Jewish synagogue.—LYALL, vol. I. p. 357.]

such representations which they do now, and nearly that time has elapsed since the work of Haym appeared. It is generally esteemed as an article of food in all countries where it is found. It burrows in the ground like a rabbit, but seems more to resemble the squirrel than either that animal or the rat. Its fine dark eyes have all the lustre of the antelope's. Haym says, the smell of it is never offensive when kept domestic; and indeed it may be considered one of the most pleasing harmless little quadrupeds of which we have any knowledge. Gmelin observed it in the neighbourhood of Woronetz in 1768, Messerschmied in Siberia, and Hasselquist in Egypt. When our army was encamped near Alexandria, in the late expedition to Egypt, the soldiers preserved some of these animals in boxes, and fed them like rabbits.*

From Akmetchet the distance is only thirty versts to Baktcheserai, once the residence of the khan, and the Tartar capital of the Crimea. As it was our intention to make the tour of all the south part of the peninsula, we lost no time in setting out for this place. We met several caravans, which were principally laden with cucumbers of such immense length and size, that the statement of their dimensions will perhaps not be believed. We measured some that were in length above two feet. There is no article of food so grateful to a Russian as the salted cucumber, and all the inhabitants of the Crimea cultivate the plant for the sake of the pickle they afford. They have varieties of this vegetable unknown in England; among others, one which is snow-white, and which attains the astonishing size I have mentioned, without running to seed, or losing any thing of its crisp and refreshing flavour. The country, as we advanced, became more diversified with wood; and near the villages we saw good crops of corn and hay. I have before observed, that a traveller, unless he visits the southern coast, may pass over all the rest of the Crimea, and from its appearance conclude that the whole country is nothing but a flat and dreary steppe. Baktcheserai is the first object in the whole journey from Yenikalé to Sevastopole, which interrupts the dull monotony of at least two-thirds of the peninsula, to the north of Tchetirdagh, and the other mountains which oppose themselves to the Black Sea on the southern side. It is one of the most remarkable towns in Europe: first, in the novelty of its manners and customs, which are strictly oriental, and betray nothing whatsoever of an European character; secondly, in the site of the town itself, which occupies the craggy sides of a prodigious natural fosse between two high mountains, somewhat like that of Matlock in Derbyshire. The view breaks all at once upon the traveller, in a most irregular and scattered manner; while bubbling fountains, running waters, gardens, terraces, hanging vineyards, and groves of the black poplar, seem to soften the horror of rocks and precipices, and even make them appear inviting. The religious veneration with which the Tartars regard their fountains, induces them to spare no expense which may enrich them with the purest water. These fountains are almost as necessary to the ceremonies of the mosque, as they are ornamental to the town; since every true Moslem washes his head, beard, hands, and feet, before he proceeds to prayer. The number of fountains is so great at Baktcheserai, that they are seen in all parts of the city—water flowing from them day and night, as cold as ice, and as clear as crystal. One of them had not less than ten spouts, from which the purest streams continually fell upon slabs of marble. Here, four times in every twenty-four hours, the Tartars, invoked by their *mullas* from the lofty minarets, are seen assembled performing their ablutions, and proceeding to their mosques. If Paley's position be admitted, that "a man who is in earnest about religion cannot be a bad man," the Mahometans, being more in earnest than any sect of worshippers upon earth, are entitled to respect; and I will confess, I never beheld a Moslem at his prayers without feeling a kindling awe, inspired by the sincerity of his devotion. Not a syllable is suffered to escape his lips, except those which express the name of God, and which at intervals are heard in low impressive sighs. His whole soul seems to hold communion with the object of his worship; nor does any thing divert his attention.

To describe what Baktcheserai was, it would be necessary to convey ideas at least adequate to the present appearance of its ruins: and this is very difficult. The savage and wanton barbarity of the Russians found in the magnificence of this capital wherewith to exercise, in its full scope, their favourite passion for destruction. The city was divided into several departments, of which the Greek colony alone occupied one entire and extensive valley. This they entirely demolished, not leaving one stone upon another. The palace of the khan, in the centre of the town, was that in which he usually resided; but he had a favourite and more pleasing retirement in a magnificent edifice, most delightfully situated beneath a mountain, upon the sloping side of a beautiful vale. This they so completely erased, that without a guide to the spot no one can discover even where it stood. Of the rest of the city, not above one-third now remains. Were I to detail half the cruelties, the extortions, the rapine, and barbarity, practised by the Russians upon the devoted inhabitants of the Crimea, and their deluded khan, the relation would exceed belief. I have the authority of one of their commanders, whom I dare not name, for asserting, that when the mullas, or Tartar priests, ascended the minarets at midday to proclaim the noon, according to their usual custom, the Russian soldiers amused themselves by firing muskets at them; and in one of these instances a priest was killed. The repugnancy with which every English reader will peruse an account of such enormities, may lead him to doubt the veracity of the representation, although given, as it was received, from an eye-witness of the fact.

The capture of the Crimea was an event which excited the attention of all Europe; but the circumstances which led to the deposition and death of the khan are not so generally known. They have been artfully concealed by the Russians; and the brilliancy of the conquest of the Crimea, dazzling the imagination, has prevented a due inquiry into those dark and sinister manœuvres by which the plot was carried on for the subjection of the peninsula. Potemkin, that arch-priest of intrigue and wickedness, planned and executed the whole of it; to fulfil whose designs it was immaterial what laws were violated, what principles trampled on, what murders committed, or what faith broken. His principal favourites were swindlers, adventurers, parasites—unprincipled men of every description, but especially unprincipled men of talent, found in him a ready patron.

It is well known, that, by the last treaty of peace which Russia made with the Turks, prior to the conquest of the peninsula, Shahin Ghirei, of the family of the khans, who had been a prisoner and a hostage at Petersburg, was placed on the throne of the Crimea. This was the first step towards the overthrow of that kingdom. From the moment of his accession, the Russian minister in the Crimea, an artful and designing foreigner, well chosen from Potemkin's list to execute the

* [The name of the town Akmetchet has been definitively changed to Sympheropole, and it is now the capital of the Crimea, and the residence of the civil governor. The statement of Dr Clarke as to its unhealthiness has been questioned by later travellers, and Mr Spencer even describes its situation as salubrious and beautiful, and the town itself a charming residence. Dr Lyall states one or two striking facts in favour of its healthful position.

It is here that Katti-Gherri Krim-Gherri resides. He is a descendant of the Tartar khans, and having become acquainted with the Scotch missionaries at Karass in the Caucasus, he was sent to Edinburgh for education. Here he married a Scotch lady, and embraced the Christian religion. Dr Lyall visited him in 1822, and describes him and his sultana as living in great happiness. He has devoted himself to teaching the doctrines of Christianity amongst his countrymen, but, according to Mr Spencer, he had not succeeded, in the year 1836, in obtaining a single convert (vol. II. p. 89). A great indisposition to Christianity exists amongst the Tartars, arising from its being professed by the Russians, whose enormities in their country they have not yet forgotten.]

plans he had in view, began to excite the Tartars against the khan, raising commotions among them, buying over the disaffected, and stimulating the people to frequent insurrection. In the meantime, he insinuated himself into the good graces of the khan, teaching him to do whatever might be most unpopular in the eyes of his subjects. Among other dangerous absurdities, he prevailed upon the khan to place every thing in his establishment upon a Russian footing—to discipline his troops after the Russian manner—to build frigates on his coast, filling his head with preposterous ideas of the navigation of the Black Sea. Thus he incurred enormous expenses, which compelled him to drain his subjects of their money, and increased their murmurs. The Russian minister, equally active on both sides, lost no opportunity to encourage the follies of the khan, or to augment the disaffection of the nobles. The work succeeded to his utmost wishes—a revolt took place, which soon became general; and the terrified khan was persuaded to fly, first to Caffa, and afterwards to Taman.

Then it was that the last master-stroke of political intrigue was effected. The khan was prevailed upon to call in the assistance of the Russian troops, who were eagerly waiting the proposal, and as eagerly acceded to it. Thus a Russian army was suffered to enter, unmolested, into the heart of the Crimea. Under pretext of punishing those who had rebelled against the khan for a revolt they had themselves excited, they put to death whomsoever they thought proper, took possession of the strongholds, and practised their usual excesses. The Tartars, some by compulsion, others by entreaty, and a still greater number by terror, were driven from their country, and compelled to seek elsewhere a residence. The khan returned to Karasubazar, where the Russian army was encamped, and there, in presence of the Russian troops, was persuaded to order his nobles to be stoned to death—his pretended allies feasting their eyes with the slaughter of men whom they first induced to rebel against their sovereign, and afterwards caused to be butchered for having complied with their desires. Thus the deluded khan, and his still more deluded subjects, alike the dupe of designing wretches whom they had allowed to take possession of their country, began at last to open their eyes, and endeavoured to rid themselves of an alliance so fatal in its consequences. It was too late—the khan was himself a prisoner in the very centre of the Russian army; and the rest of their conduct towards him exceeds in depravity all that had preceded.

A proposal was made to him to resign the crown of the Crimea—to quit the peninsula—and to attest, by his sign-manual, that the individuals of his family, in which the throne was hereditary, were for ever rightfully deposed. The khan received the insolent proposal with the astonishment and indignation which it merited; but he was reminded, that, being indebted to the Russians for his kingdom, he ought to resign it whenever it might accord with their wishes. The reasoning was arbitrary, but very effectual when it is enforced at the mouth of a cannon; and an unfortunate prince, to whom it is addressed, remains prisoner in the camp of his enemies. In addition to this proposal, conditions were annexed, that instead of being deprived of his dignities by compliance, the khan should have his residence in Petersburg—that he should hold a court there of much greater splendour and magnificence than he had known in the Crimea—that he should be allowed an annual pension of 100,000 roubles, be enriched by all manner of presents, enjoy the luxuries of that great capital, and partake in the amusements which the magnificence of Catherine constantly afforded—that no restraint whatever should be put upon his person, but that he should be at full liberty to act as he might think proper. The khan saw the snare into which he had fallen, but there was no method of liberating himself. He retained, however, sufficient firmness to persist in a refusal, in consequence of which, force completed what entreaty was unable to accomplish. He was dragged a prisoner to Kaluga, a wretched hamlet upon the river Oka, yet ranking as the capital of a government of the same name, and 1000 versts distant from Petersburg, from which place he was not permitted to move. In this miserable condition, finding that neither his pension was paid to him, nor any single engagement fulfilled which the Russians had made, he insisted upon going to Petersburg, but was told it could not be permitted. At last, giving himself over entirely to despondency, he exclaimed, "Let me be delivered a victim to the Turks; they will not refuse me, at least, the privilege of choosing the manner of my death, since my enemies have resolved on my destruction!" The unparalleled cruelty of the Russians suggested the propriety of acceding to this request; they rejoiced to hear it made, because it offered an easy method of getting rid of one whom they had pillaged, and whose presence was no longer either necessary or desirable. They placed him therefore upon the Turkish frontier, where he was taken, and, being afterwards sent to Rhodes, was beheaded.

If it be now asked what the Russians have done with regard to the Crimea, after the depravity, the cruelty, and the murders, by which it was obtained, and on that account became so favourite an acquisition in their eyes, the answer is given in few words. They have laid waste the country; cut down the trees; pulled down the houses; overthrown the sacred edifices of the natives, with all their public buildings; destroyed the public aqueducts; robbed the inhabitants; insulted the Tartars in their acts of public worship; torn up from the tombs the bodies of their ancestors, casting their reliques upon dunghills, and feeding swine out of their coffins; annihilated all the monuments of antiquity; breaking up alike the sepulchres of saints and Pagans, and scattering their ashes in the air!

There was something very emphatic in the speech of a poor Tartar, who one day lamenting in his garden the havoc made among his fruit-trees by a severe frost, said, "We never used to experience such hard weather; but since the Russians came, they seem to have brought their winter along with them."

The principal palace of the khans is still entire, and probably may escape the general destruction, because the late empress ordered it to be kept in repair, and always according to its present oriental form. When she came to Baktcheserai, they had fitted up a set of apartments for her in the French taste, which gave her great offence, and caused her to issue the order for its preservation according to the original style observed in the building. It is situated in the midst of gardens, from which circumstance the city derives its name.* Those gardens are filled with fountains and fine fruit-trees. Its interior presents that kind of scenery which eastern romances describe, and our theatres endeavour to represent, consisting of chambers, galleries, and passages, so intricate and irregular, that it is impossible to give any description of the plan by which they are put together, or the purposes for which they were erected. Upon the whole, it is rather insignificant for the residence of a sovereign. A large hall, opening by means of arches to the gardens of the seraglio, and to different courts, receives several staircases, which wind to different parts of the palace. From this hall a door conducted the khan to a small mosque, for his private devotions, when he did not appear in public. Ascending to the apartments, we find no resemblance to any thing European. The rooms are small, and surrounded by divans; the windows all concealed by wooden lattices, or, as they are called by the French, *jalousies*. Some of the windows look only from one room into another; but being intended perhaps more for ornament than utility, they consist of small casements placed in little oblong rows, and are at the same time so filled with frame-work and lattice, that no one can see through them. In the windows of the best apartments we observed painted glass. Several of the staircases, which conduct from one set of rooms to another, are open to the air, but the persons ascending or descending were concealed from all outward view by lattices. The chief concern, both of Tartars and Turks, in their dwellings, seems to be to avoid observation.

* Baktcheserai signifies *a palace situated in a garden.*

Their apartments are very cold, and, to the generality of Europeans, would be insufferable in winter; but the Tartar, having nothing to do during that season of the year but to sit smoking, wrapped up in a huge pelisse, would find the rooms equally insupportable if they were warmer.

A very handsome bath, prepared in one part of the palace for the late empress, is worthy of notice; because, remaining exactly as it was fitted up for her, it proves the immense sums which were lavished by Potemkin during her celebrated journey to the Crimea. The same luxuries were provided for her wherever she halted, together with all the elegance and conveniences of palaces, furnished as if for her continual residence. She had adopted the daily practice of bathing her body with cold water, and for that purpose the most sumptuous baths were every where erected; and though most of them were used only once, they were all lined throughout with white cotton quilts, and surrounded by carpets and sofas of the same materials. That part of the seraglio which was particularly appropriated to the use of the women, it is well known, bears the name of the *harem*. One has a natural inclination to see the inside of one of these places, secluded as they are from observation by the Mahometans with such rigid caution. There is nothing, however, to gratify the curiosity excited by so much mystery. The harem of the khan has been preserved in its original state, without the slightest alteration. Potemkin passed his nights there during the visit of the empress, and was much amused with the idea of sleeping in a harem. It consists of a set of very indifferent apartments of a square form, opening one into another, which have neither magnificence nor comfort. They are detached from the palace, and surrounded by a garden with high walls. Owing to the lattices which cover the windows, and the trees planted before them, the miserable prisoners doomed to reside there could hardly have obtained a view even of the sky, the only object granted to their contemplation. Having no literary resource, the women shut up there passed their time, as ladies informed me who were in the habit of visiting them, in embroidery, and in drinking very bad coffee, with sometimes sherbet, and a poor sort of lemonade. In the Turkish harems the women are allowed the greater luxury of smoking, which to human beings so situated must become one of the most important blessings of life. The most remarkable part of the seraglio is the entrance, by a winding passage, so narrow, that one person only could pass at the same time, who was under the absolute necessity of stepping so close to the guard as to wake him, even if he were asleep. Into this passage the khan descended by a private staircase, appropriated solely to his use.

The Armenian merchants of Nakhtshivan, who, with almost all the Christians of the peninsula, emigrated from the Crimea, were originally inhabitants of Baktcheserai;* and their loss has been severely felt ever since the conquest of this country by the Russians. The present population, including male and female, amounts to nearly 6000 souls.† In this number are included above 1100 Jews, 420 of whom are registered as merchants. The number of Tartars does not exceed 3000; of which number 20 belong to the class of nobles, 237 are merchants, 173 priests, and 78 students of divinity.‡

The morning after our arrival, Colonel Richard Dunant, a native of Smyrna, and an officer in the Russian service residing in Baktcheserai, accompanied us on horseback to climb the steep defile which leads from the city to the Jewish colony of Dschoufoutkalé,* situated on a mountain, and distant about five versts. These Jews are of the sect called *Karaï;* they inhabit an ancient fortress originally constructed by the Genoese upon a very lofty precipice. Passing up the defile which leads to this fortress, we observed Tartar women creeping about among the tombs and ruined mosques, in snow-white veils, which made them appear like so many ghosts, sometimes covering all the face, except the eyes; at others, concealing the whole of the head. Their beautiful flowing drapery, and the interesting groups they formed among the ruins, would have furnished a noble subject for an artist's pencil. As if their veils were not a sufficient screen, no sooner do they behold a man, than they hang their heads, and often endeavour to get out of sight by running away. An English servant, whom Admiral Mordvinof brought into the Crimea, observing this aversion in the Tartar women from being seen, deemed it an act of rudeness to give them the trouble of hiding their faces and of running away on his account; therefore, whenever he encountered them, he used to cover his face and take to his heels, to conceal himself in the first place that presented. This passed unnoticed for some time; but at length the Tartar women, struck with the singularity of seeing a man always avoid them, and endeavour to conceal himself from their observation, let fall a portion of their veils when they next met him, which only caused him to run faster than before. This excited their curiosity to such a degree, that at length they fairly hunted him; and after following him in parties to his hiding-place with their veils off, were resolved to see the man who for the first time concealed his face at the approach of a woman; and actually demanded an explanation of his extraordinary conduct.

Advancing along the defile, and always ascending, we passed above the remains of that part of the city which I before mentioned as belonging to the Greeks. It is nothing but a heap of ruins, with scarcely one stone upon another. As we proceeded, they showed us in the very highest part of the rocks an iron ring, to which, according to their traditions, vessels were formerly fastened, although they must have rode many hundred feet above the present level of the Black Sea. The tradition, however, is, or ought to be, set aside, by a much more rational account given of this ring; viz. that a rope was fastened to it upon festival days, which being carried across the defile to a similar ring on the opposite side, the khans amused themselves by seeing a man cross over the valley, from one precipice to the other, after the same manner as at Venice, where, during the carnival, a hired rope-dancer was drawn up to the top of the tower of St Mark, whence he descended by another rope, with a bouquet of flowers in his hand, to present to the Doge. This is the account the best informed give of the marvellous ring near Baktcheserai; but Baron de Tott very credulously admitted the original tradition, with all its absurdity. The only objection belonging to the more rational account arises from the difficulty of conceiving how any rope, so extended, could support a man's weight without breaking.

Farther up the defile is a very remarkable example of the power of human labour, in a Greek monastery, or chapel, hewn in the very side of the precipice, and in such a manner that nothing of it is visible but the small perforated cavities through which light was communicated to the interior. The Greeks of the Crimea were forbidden by the Tartars the use of any public church, nor were they allowed to exercise publicly the functions of their religion; in consequence of which, like the persecuted Arians, they fled to rocks and precipices, secretly excavating the most inaccessible caverns, and ascending to their subterraneous shrines by small winding staircases concealed from the most prying observation. This result of their labour and piety remains among the few things which the Russians have not found it easy to destroy; offering one of the most

* The number of emigrants amounted to 75,000, all of whom, excepting 7000, perished from cold, hunger, and other causes, in the steppes, on the western side of the Sea of Azof.

† According to Pallas 5776, including Greeks, Armenians, Jews, and Tartars.

‡ [The population of Baktcheserai is at present upwards of 10,000, of whom 8000 are Mahommedans. There are not above five or six Russian families, so that the town preserves all the features of a Tartar community. The ancient palace has been repaired, and now remains a very perfect and remarkable monument of oriental magnificence. There are thirty-two mosques in the town, and two churches, one Greek and one Armenian, together with a Greek monastery, and three synagogues.]

* Dschoufout is a name, originally of reproach, bestowed upon the Jews; and kalé signifies a fortress.

singular curiosities in the Crimea, and to all appearance being suspended like a marten's nest upon the face of a lofty precipice beneath stupendous rocks.

We now came to the lower verge of some steep cliffs, and beheld on the summit the walls of Dschoufoutkalé. In a recess upon our right hand appeared the cemetery, or "field of dead," belonging to the Karaïte Jews. Nothing could be imagined more calculated to inspire holy meditation. It was a beautiful grove, filling a chasm of the mountains, rendered dark by the shade of lofty trees and overhanging rocks. A winding path conducted through this solemn scene. Several tombs of white marble presented a fine contrast to the deep green of the foliage, and some female figures in white veils were offering pious lamentations over the graves. An evening or a morning visit to the sepulchres of their departed friends, is perhaps the only airing in which the Jewish women indulge themselves, as they seldom leave their houses; and in this respect their customs are similar to those of Tartars and Turks.* If the belief these nations entertain, that the souls of the dead hover about their earthly tabernacles and hold communion with the living, could be admitted by the followers of Christ, it would not be possible to direct the human mind to any exercise more consolatory, or more sublimely affecting. I never saw Mahometans or Jews so circumstanced, without feeling something very like a wish to share at least with them this article of their faith.

The ascent from the cemetery to the fortress, although short, was so steep, that we were forced to alight from our horses, and actually climb to the gateway. Several slaves, however, busied in conveying water upon the backs of asses, passed us in their way up. The spring which supplies them is below in the defile; and a very copious reservoir, cut in the rocks above, is prepared for the use of the colony. As we passed the gateway and entered the town, we were met by several of the inhabitants. Colonel Dunant inquired for a Jew of his acquaintance, one of the principal people in the place. We were conducted to his house, and found him at noon sleeping on his divan. He rose to receive us, and presently regaled us with various sorts of confectionary, among which were conserved leaves of roses, and preserved walnuts; also eggs, cheese, cold pies, and brandy. A messenger was dispatched for the Rabbi, whom he invited to meet us, and who soon after made his appearance. This man was held in very high consideration by them all, and with good reason; for he was exceedingly well informed, and had passed a public examination with distinguished honour in Petersburg, after being sent for expressly by the Empress Catherine. We were highly interested by their conversation, as well as by the singularity of having found one Jewish settlement, perhaps the only one upon earth, where that people exist secluded from the rest of mankind, in the free exercise of their ancient customs and peculiarities.† The town contains about 1200 persons of both sexes, and not more than 200 houses.‡ The Tartars left here a stately mausoleum, erected for the daughter of one of their khans, now a ruin. The principal part of each dwelling belongs to the women; but every master of a family has his own private apartment, where he sleeps, smokes, and receives his friends. The room in which we were entertained was of this description; it was filled with manuscripts, many in the hand-writing of our host; others in that of his children: and all in very beautiful Hebrew characters. The Karaïtes deem it an act of piety to copy the Bible, or copious commentaries upon its text, once in their lives. All their manuscript copies of the Old Testament began with the book of Joshua; and even the most ancient did not contain the Pentateuch. That part of the Bible was kept apart, but only in a printed version, for the use of schools.* In the synagogues, with the exception of the books of Moses, every thing was in manuscript. The Rabbi asked if we had any of the Karaïte sect in England; a question we could not answer. He said there were few in Holland: and I believe, as a sect, it is very rare. These Jews call themselves Karai. The etymology of the name is uncertain. The difference between their creed and that of Jews in general, according to the information received from the Rabbi, consists in a rejection of the Talmud, a disregard to every kind of tradition, to all Rabbinical writings or opinions, all marginal interpolations of the text of Scripture, and in a measure of their rule of faith by the pure letter of the law. They pretend to have the text of the Old Testament in its most genuine state. Being desirous to possess one of their Bibles, the Rabbi, who seemed gratified by the interest we betrayed, permitted me to purchase a beautiful manuscript copy written upon vellum, about four hundred years old; but having left this volume in the Crimea, to be forwarded by way of Petersburg, it was never afterwards recovered. It began, like the others which were shown to us, with the book of Joshua.

The character of the Karaïte Jews is directly opposite to that which is generally attributed to their brethren in other countries, being altogether without reproach. Their honesty is proverbial in the Crimea; and the word of a Karaïte is considered equal to a bond. Almost all of them are engaged in trade or manufacture. We were surprised to see vine leaves sold in the streets, particularly as they are abundant in the country; but this article is in very great demand, to use in cookery. Their minced meat is rolled up in vine leaves, and sent to table in the form of sausages. They observe their fasts with the most scrupulous rigour, abstaining even from snuff and from smoking for twenty-four hours together. In the very earliest periods of Jewish history, this sect separated from the main stem: this, at least, is their own account; and nothing concerning them ought to be received from Rabbinists, who hold them in detestation. For this reason, the relations of Leo of Modena, a Rabbi of Venice, are not to be admitted. Their schism is said to be as old as the return from the Babylonish Captivity. They use very extraordinary care in the education of their children, who are taught publicly in the synagogues; and in this respect the Tartars are not deficient. I rarely entered a Tartar village in the day-time without seeing the children assembled in some public place, receiving their instruction from persons appointed to superintend the care of their education; reciting with audible voices passages from the Koran; or busied in copying manuscript lessons placed before them. The dress of the Karaïtes differs little from that worn by the Tartars. All of them, of whatsoever age, suffer their beards to grow; but among Tartars the beard is a distinction of age, the young men wearing only whiskers. The Karaïtes wear also a very lofty thick felt cap, faced with wool, which is heavy, and keeps the head very hot. The Turks and Armenians often do the same; and in warm climates this precaution seems a preservative against the dangerous consequences which result from obstructed perspiration.

From this interesting colony we returned, by a different road along the tops of the mountains, to Baktcheserai; concerning which place I hope not to have omitted any thing the reader might deem worthy of his attention.

* This little valley of Jehosaphat is so highly valued by the Jews, that, whenever the ancient khans wished to extort from them a present, or to raise a *voluntary* contribution, it was sufficient to threaten them with the extirpation of those sacred trees, under the plausible pretence of wanting fuel or timber.—PALLAS'S *Travels*, vol. II. p. 35.

† It seems singular that such fortresses should have been possessed by such a people; yet in Abyssinia the Falasha appear similarly situated, and Jackson mentions a Jews' Rock in Morocco.—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

‡ [The Jewish settlement of Tchúfút-Kalé, or Castle of the Miscreants, does not contain above 1100 persons at present.]

* The reason given by the Rabbi for the omission of the Books of Moses in their manuscript copies was, that the Pentateuch being in constant use for the instruction of their children, it was reserved apart, that the whole volume might not be liable to the injuries it would thus sustain.

CHAPTER XX.

FROM THE CAPITAL OF THE CRIMEA, TO THE HERACLEOTIC CHERSONESUS.

Upon our arrival at the house where we had lodged, we found the servant endeavouring to secure a very large tarantula, which he had caught in one of the out-houses. Some utility may follow even our imperfect entomological researches, if they cause future travellers to avoid the dangerous consequences of an attack from such animals. Both from my own experience, and the very extensive knowledge of Professor Pallas, I am authorised to assert, that in warm countries the wounds they occasion sometimes prove fatal. The amputation of the part affected was the only method of saving our soldiers in Egypt who had been bitten by the scorpion; and Pallas had noticed the most dangerous consequences from the attacks of the scolopendra, the phalangium, and the tarantula.

The evening after we descended from the fortress belonging to the Jewish colony, we left Baktcheserai, and reached the great bay of Aktiar, upon which place the Russians, in the time of Catherine II., bestowed the fantastic name of Sebastopole. We had a passage of about two versts to make across the water to the town. Prince Viazemskoy, the governor, had stationed a sentinel with a boat, who told us he had waited four days in expectation of our coming; and, according to the orders he had received, a gun was fired, to give notice to the garrison of our arrival. The great bay of Aktiar also bears the name of The Roads; and here the Russian fleet is frequently at anchor. It is the Ctenus of Strabo. The harbour, upon which the town of Aktiar was built about twenty years ago, has been appropriated to the reception of Russian ships of war. There are other ports, such as the Careening Bay, the Bay of Quarantine, &c. The Crimea does not afford timber for building ships, although there is always a sufficient supply for repairs. The fleets of the world might ride secure, and have convenient anchorage, in the great harbour; and in any of the ports, vessels find from twenty-one to seventy feet depth of water and good anchorage. To the Russian navy it is one of their most important possessions; yet such was the surprising ignorance or carelessness of their government, that for some time after the capture of the Crimea, the advantages of this place were not discovered. The plan of the harbour somewhat resembles that of Malta.

Aktiar contains two churches, one of which is a handsome building. The principal street is broad, and the stairs of the quay are spacious and magnificent. For the rest, with the exception of its magazines and barracks, it can boast only a few shops.* Other objects demand the attention of the traveller, and call for all his activity. Landing at Aktiar, he arrives in the very centre of some of the most interesting antiquities of the Crimea. The country included within the isthmus formed by the principal harbour of Aktiar, or Inkerman, that is to say, by the Ctenus of Strabo, and the port of Balaclava, or Portus Symbolorum, is the Heracleotic Chersonesus, so accurately described by that author as a portion of the Peninsula Major, or Taurica Chersonesus. On this small district stood the cities of the old and new Chersonesus, and Eupatorium; the temples of Diana, and promontory Parthenium, celebrated by the story of Iphigenia; the famous Chersonesian Mole; with numerous ramparts, tombs, canals, and other works, the memory of which historians preserve, but the last traces of whose magnificence the Russians daily labour to annihilate.

Prince Viazemskoy had prepared apartments for us in a palace belonging to the Crown, similar to that already noticed at Stara Crim; but there was at that time resident in Aktiar a countryman of ours in the Russian service, an illiterate man, whose vanity we found would be piqued if we did not take up our abode with him. He was originally employed as servant to the astronomer in Cooke's second voyage; and by the powerful interest made in his behalf, by Professor Pallas and other persons of high respectability, obtained the command of an expedition to the north-west coast of America, of which Saüer has published a narrative. He had the rank of commodore; and his claim as a countryman, added to his other pretensions, induced us to accept his offers of accommodation. We had reason afterwards to regret our folly; for, in addition to the privations we endured beneath his roof, we found ourselves thwarted in every undertaking by his interference, and very often by his actual misrepresentations to the governor and police officers. He would not allow the prince to grant us permission for the removal of any article of antiquity we had purchased, although they were all condemned to serve as building materials; and we had soon reason to apprehend, that we were accompanied, wherever we went, by as dangerous a spy as the jealous police of that country could possibly place over us. The room allotted to our use was a kind of antechamber, destitute even of the meanest article of furniture, in which we slept upon the bare floor; nor should we have noticed the rigour of our fare, if it had not borne the respectable name of English hospitality.

The prince prepared his shalloop for us on the next day, with twelve oars, to visit the ruins and caverns of Inkerman, at the extremity of the principal harbour. The commodore and the metropolitan bishop accompanied us. Before we reached Inkerman, some very remarkable excavations appeared in the rocks by the side of the bay, which were visible at a considerable distance. Upon examination, they proved to be chambers with arched windows, cut in the solid stone with great care and art. The bishop represented them to have been the retreats of Christians in the earliest ages. But to give an idea of what we saw at Inkerman would baffle every power of pen or pencil. The rocks all round the extremity of the harbour are hewn into chapels, monasteries, cells, sepulchres, and a variety of works which confound and astonish the beholder. A river flows here into the bay, after leaving perhaps the most beautiful valley in Europe. At the mouth of this river the remarkable antiquities are situated which it is my present endeavour to describe, the excavations appearing on both sides of it. Those which first appear to persons approaching from Aktiar are on the south side, and have been converted into magazines for hold-

* "Aktiar, so called from its *white rocks*. The old town stood, as we were told, on the north of the harbour, where there are no remains of any consequence. No vessels are built here, as the timber must all be floated down the Bog or Dnieper. A regulation had been made prohibiting merchant vessels the entrance into the harbour, unless in positive distress; a strange way of proceeding, when compared with the general policy of European governments. The reason assigned was the embezzlement of the public stores, which were sold to the merchants by the government officers almost without shame. The effect has been to check entirely the prosperity of the town, and to raise every foreign commodity to a most extravagant price. Even provisions cannot be brought by sea without a special licence. This information I derived from the Port Admiral Bandakof, and from an English officer in the Russian service. The natural advantages of the harbour are truly surprising, and the largest vessels lie within a cable's length of the shore. The harbour is divided into three coves, affording shelter in every wind, and favourable situations for repairs, building, &c. On a tongue of high land, between the two southern creeks, stands the admiralty and store-houses, and on the opposite side is the town. The principal arm of the harbour runs east, and is terminated by the valley and little river of Inkerman. There are some formidable batteries, and the mouth of the harbour is very easy of defence. The old and unserviceable cannon are broken into small pieces, by being raised to a great height, and suffered to fall on a bed of masonry, and then sent, as we were told, to Lugan, to be new cast. To build a ship in the Black Sea costs half as much again as to construct it at Cronstadt, the wood coming from so great a distance."—Heber's *MS. Journal.* [It would appear from Mr Spencer's account that the building of ships is now proceeded with at Sevastopole (for the Tartar name of Aktiar is somewhat exploded), and that the dock yards, with an admiralty and arsenal, are under the care of Mr Upton, an English engineer. The works carried on by the Russian government at this great naval station are very stupendous. The population of the town, including sailors and soldiers, has been estimated as high as 22,000.]

ing gunpowder. It was with great difficulty we could prevail upon the sentinels to suffer us to enter the caves in which the ammunition is kept. These caves seem to have constituted an entire monastery; as the rock has been so wonderfully perforated, that it now exhibits a church, with several chambers and long passages leading off in various directions. Passing along these, the fine prospect of the valley of Inkerman is seen through the wide open arches, together with heaps of ruins on the opposite side of the river. The principal cavern appears to have been the church. We found several stone coffins cut in the rock, which had been laid open; and we noticed some Greek inscriptions above them. It was now evening; and night rapidly coming on, the full moon rose in great splendour over the long valley of Inkerman, and presented a landscape, through the arches of these gloomy caverns, which perhaps it is not possible for imagination to conceive. On the opposite side of the river the excavations were still more frequent, and somewhat more distant from the bay. Crossing an ancient bridge, whose fair proportioned arch and massive superstructure indicated masonry of some remote age, we found the caverns so numerous as to occupy one entire side of a mountain, on the summit of which were the towers and battlements of a very large fortress, supposed to have belonged to the Genoese, but perhaps originally a part of the fortifications erected by Diophantus, one of the generals of Mithridates. From the appearance of the staircases which conduct to it, and which lead also to the very caverns before mentioned, it is evident that a fortress was erected there ever since the excavations were first made, whatever the date of their origin may be. Several chapels, together with the remains of stone sepulchres, which seem to have contained the bodies of distinguished persons, are among these chambers, now tenanted by Tartars and their goats. The stone coffins serve as drinking-troughs for the cattle; and the altars, once perfumed with incense, are now filthy receptacles for dung and mud. Pallas, who had paid considerable attention to the subject, believed all these remains, whether of buildings or excavated chambers, to have originated in a settlement of Arians, who when Christianity met with general persecution, fled to these rocks, and fortified themselves against the barbarian inhabitants of the peninsula. Similar works are found in other parts of the Crimea, particularly at Schulu and Mankoup; also in Italy, and other parts of Europe; and they have generally been attributed to the labours of those early Christians who fled from persecution. The air of Inkerman is unwholesome during the months of summer and autumn; and this may be said, in some degree, of the whole peninsula. Even the inhabitants are afflicted with frequent fevers; but strangers rarely escape. The tertian fever is the most common. In the autumn it is very difficult to avoid this disorder, particularly at Akmetchet, Aktiar, Koslof, Sudak, and Karasubazar. Baktcheserai is the most healthy situation, because a constant current of air passes through the defile in which it is situated, and the water is excellent.

After returning from our excursion to Inkerman, we endeavoured to investigate the ancient geography of the Heracleotic peninsula. It was a work of some difficulty; yet the materials indeed were ample. The ruins, as they still existed, with the assistance of Strabo, and an accurate survey of the country, might be deemed sufficient for the purpose; but the insurmountable difficulties created by the barbarity of the Russians were very intimidating. When they settled in the country, the remains of the city of Chersonesus were so considerable, that all its gates were standing. These they soon demolished; and, proceeding in their favourite employment of laying waste, they pulled down, broke, buried, and destroyed whatever they could find which might serve to illustrate its former history; blowing up its ancient foundations; tearing open tombs; overthrowing temples; and then, removing the masses of stone and marble to Aktiar, exposed them for sale, by cubic measure, to serve as materials in building. If the Archipelago should fall under the dominion of Russia, the fine remains of ancient Greece will be no more; Athens will be razed, and not a stone be left to mark where the city stood. Turks are men of taste and science, in comparison with Russians. Among other interesting antiquities, which the latter had removed from the city of Chersonesus, was a beautiful bas-relief, of white marble, exhibiting sculpture equal in perfection to some of the most admired productions of the art. It had closed the entrance to the tomb of a philosopher by the name of Theagenes. Any of the inhabitants of Aktiar might have purchased it, together with a ton-weight besides of other stones, for a single rouble. To us the sale was prohibited, because we were strangers; and, worse than all, we were Englishmen. Commodore Billings particularly insisted, that the consequences would be serious if it reached the ears of the emperor that Englishmen were allowed to remove any thing of this description; so the *cippus* of Theagenes was left to its fate. As a bas-relief, it represented Theagenes and his wife. The drapery of these figures beautifully displayed the perfection to which the art of sculpture had attained among the inhabitants, and thereby illustrated and confirmed the text of Pliny. The philosopher held in his left hand a scroll, in form and size resembling the manuscripts found in Pompeii. His feet were bound in sandals. His wife, in a Grecian habit, wore a long robe, which fell negligently in folds to the ground. They both appeared in the prime of life. From the style of the inscription written below, the late Professor Porson affirmed that the date of it might have been at least 200 years prior to Christianity. I was afterwards conducted to the sepulchre from the mouth of which they had removed this marble. It was a family vault, hewn in the rock on the outside of the walls of the ancient city of Chersonesus. Within were recesses for the bodies of the dead. When it was opened, the soldiers found the bones still in a state of preservation, and they scattered them among the ruins. There were many other sepulchres of the same kind on the side of the rock in which this appeared, hewn in the same manner, and closed by a large stone. Thus, evidently, the custom of the Chersonesians was to bury, and not to burn, the dead. With the single exception of the vase found at Yenikalé, we observed no where in the Crimea either ashes, urns, or other proof of bodies consumed by fire.

Leaving Aktiar, and following the coast westward, we passed the bay in which the Russian artillery is stationed. Then, arriving upon the bay for the quarantine, on its western side appeared the ruins and sepulchres of a town perfectly distinct from that of Chersonesus, and which answers the situation assigned by Strabo to Eupatorium, built by Diophantus. His observations state, that the promontory on which the town stood, inclining towards the city, at the distance of fifteen stadia, formed a considerable bay, beyond which was the Ctenus, and that the inhabitants built a mole across, which united the two towns. The remains of the mole are yet visible, and the distance, allowing for every stadium an English furlong, is precisely that which he describes. A place for the quarantine is now built upon that bay, and divides Eupatorium from Chersonesus; for immediately after passing the quarantine, appears the promontory on which stood the city of Chersonesus, now covered by its ruins. On its eastern side, below the ancient walls of the town, are the sepulchres of the Chersonesians in great number, ranged in very regular order. The plain between Chersonesus and Eupatorium is also covered by ruined buildings; and to the south of the former city, at the distance of a verst behind the promontory, upon an eminence, is a tumulus of a size so remarkable, that it cannot fail to attract notice. Immediately after passing the promontory of Eupatorium, towards the east, begins the Ctenus, or Harbour of Inkerman; the entrance to which constitutes the Roads of Aktiar, and which exactly corresponds with the account given by Strabo. The old walls, both of the town of Chersonesus and of the buildings which it contained, are extremely thick, being in fact all of them double; that is to say, having a shell on each side constructed with immense masses of stone, and the interval between

the two filled with a cement containing fragments of pottery and other coarse materials. Earthenware seemed to have been in great abundance, not only as it was employed among the materials for building, but because the ground was covered with fragments of broken vessels. Two strong towers, one of which stood contiguous to the bay, were entire in 1794. Pallas had seen them. Attached to one of these was a slab of white marble, with an inscription, which records a return of thanks for a gift of money, and repairs done to the walls for the safety of the city, during the reign of the Emperor Zeno, a name common to some of the Roman emperors on the throne of Constantinople in the fifth and sixth centuries. In the latter part is mentioned the restoration of a tower, probably that on which the inscription was found.

From the little harbour lying between the cities of Chersonesus and Eupatorium, an artificial canal, winding round towards the walls of the former, and hewn in the rock, yet remains very entire. It was calculated to admit small vessels within the suburbs of the city. Towards the extremity it is now dry, although the fishing-boats of the inhabitants still enter its mouth. "In this city," says Strabo, "is the temple of a virgin, a *certain dæmon*, from whom also the promontory is named, a hundred stadia farther on, and called Parthenium, having the fane of the dæmon, and her image. Between the city and the promontory are three ports." Taking therefore this clue, and following the coast, the three harbours mentioned by Strabo will be found to occur very regularly; but it is not so easy to determine the particular promontory on which the shrine and statue of the dæmon virgin was said to stand. As the coast inclines towards the south, a very remarkable black rock advances from the cliff into the sea, towards the west, perforated by a lofty natural arch, through which boats may pass. The singular appearance of such a scene might furnish a basis for superstition; and above this rock were the remains of a building of an oblong form, constructed with very considerable masses of stone placed together without cement. Near, were also other ruins. Farther on is a promontory still more striking, to which Formaleoni gives the name of the Promontory of Parthenium, terminating by a perpendicular precipice of very great height. Then follows the bay in which stands the Monastery of St George, in a picturesque and singular situation, so placed among sloping rocks as to seem inaccessible. The few monks who reside there have formed their little gardens upon terraces one above another. If there be any thing which can strengthen Formaleoni's opinion, it is the circumstance of the foundation of a monastery and chapel so near the spot. The early Christians, in the destruction of Pagan edifices, almost always erected new buildings, sacred to their own religion, upon the spot, and often with the materials of the old. The monks of the monastery, in the ground behind their chapel, had recently found a small stone column, the shaft of which was seven feet eight inches and a half in length, and thirteen inches in diameter. This column, together with a few broken slabs of marble, and other antiquities discovered there, seem to prove, supposing Formaleoni's position of Parthenium to be correct, that in this situation stood the *old* Chersonesus, which Strabo, after speaking of the *new*, describes as in ruins, and as occurring after the promontory. That there is some reason, however, to dissent from the opinion maintained by Formaleoni, will appear in the sequel; as there is a promontory between the monastery of St George and the harbour of Balaclava, which, independent of the tradition concerning it, is perhaps more suited to the account Strabo has given of the fane of the dæmon virgin, as well as to the terrible nature of her rites. It will be noticed in a subsequent account of a journey we made afterwards along this coast, with Professor Pallas, from Balaclava to the extreme south-western point of the minor peninsula of Chersonesus.

The whole of this little peninsula is marked by vestiges of ancient buildings. The traces of walls cross it in so many directions, that it is impossible to conceive the purposes for which they were erected. And if we take into consideration the curious remains at Inkerman, the ruins of the cities of Eupatorium and Chersonesus, of the fortresses, and other buildings along the coast, at Balaclava, and other parts of this small district, we shall certainly not find in any other part of Europe so much to interest as well as to confound the traveller, in an equal extent of territory. From the monastery of St George we returned to Aktiar, having promised to spend the remainder of the day with Prince Viazemskoy, who, as there were no post-horses, had kindly supplied us with his own.

Afterwards we set out again, by the common road, to Balaclava, with a view to examine that place, and then to traverse the whole coast as far as Alusta; which journey would comprehend not only the finest scenery of the Crimea, but also would complete our survey of its southern coast. So much has been said by travellers of the famous Valley of Baidar, that the Vale of Balaclava, which is hardly surpassed by any prospect in the Crimea, has hitherto escaped notice. Yet the wild gigantic landscape, which towards its southern extremity surrounds the town; its mountains; its ruins, and its harbour; the houses covered by vines and flowers, and overshadowed by the thick foliage of mulberry and walnut trees—make it altogether enchanting. Nothing can equal the fidelity with which Strabo has laid down the coasts of the Crimea—a circumstance which may perhaps be attributed to the place of his nativity, Amasia, whose situation enabled him to acquire familiar knowledge of the shores of the Euxine. In his account of the Archipelago and Mediterranean, although always an accurate writer, he by no means evinces the same degree of precision. According to him, the port of Balaclava, together with the Cteuus, or harbour of Inkerman, constituted by their approach an isthmus of forty stadia, or five miles; which, with a wall, fenced in the minor peninsula, having within it the city of Chersonesus. The wall we found afterwards with Professor Pallas, and its extent agreed very well with Strabo's account.

The port of Balaclava is certainly one of the most remarkable in the Crimea. From the town it appears like one of the smallest of our northern lakes, land-locked by high precipitous mountains. Though its entrance is so narrow that ships can hardly find a passage, yet it affords excellent anchorage and security in all weather from the dreadful storms of the Black Sea. Ships of war, of any burden, may find sufficient depth of water and a safe asylum there. The heights around it are the first objects descried by vessels in sailing from Constantinople. But if any ill-fated mariner, driven by tempests, sought a shelter in the port of Balaclava, during the reign of Paul, he was speedily driven out again, or sunk, by an enemy as inhospitable as the wind or the waves. The inhabitants had small pieces of artillery stationed on the heights, with the most positive orders, from that insane tyrant, to fire at any vessel who should presume to take refuge there.* The town is at present colonised by Greeks from the Morea: a set of daring pirates, to whom the place was assigned by the late empress, for the services they rendered in her last war with the Turks. We found the inhabitants of Misitra, Corinth, of the Isles of Cephalonia, Zante, &c., living without any intermixture of Tartars or Russians, according to the manners and customs of their own country. We were treated by them, as I had reason to think we should be, with every degree of politeness and hospitality. The paroxysms of the fever I had caught in the bad air of Inkerman, perhaps increased by constant fatigue of mind and body, might have induced many a worthy landlord to have denied me admission to his house, through fear of communicating the plague to his family; but the brave Spartan Feodosia, with whom we lodged at Balaclava, not only received me, but at-

* [The jealousy with which the port of Balaclava was guarded arose from the facilities it was supposed to offer for smuggling, and it was only very recently that even ships in distress were permitted to take shelter within it. This humane relaxation, like most of the other beneficial regulations in the Crimea, was granted at the instance of Count Vorontzof.]

tended me with all the solicitude of a Samaritan. We arrived by moonlight: his house was beautifully situated upon a rock near the harbour. The variety of different nations which are found in the Crimea, each living as if in a country of its own, practising its peculiar customs, and preserving its religious rites, is one of the circumstances which render the peninsula interesting to a stranger. At Baktcheserai, Tartars and Turks; upon the rocks above them, a colony of Karaïte Jews; at Balaclava, a horde of Greeks; an army of Russians at Akmetchet; in other towns, Anatolians and Armenians; in the steppes, Nagays, Gipsies, and Calmucks; so that in a very small district of territory, as in a menagerie, very opposite specimens of living curiosities are singularly contrasted. Nor is it only with a view to its natural history that the traveller finds ample source of instruction; his attention is continually diverted from such considerations by the antiquities of the country. At Balaclava they offered for sale several Greek coins of uncommon beauty and rarity; the most remarkable were of silver.

On the heights above the mouth of the port, are the ruins of a magnificent fortress, built by the Genoese when they possessed this harbour. The arms of Genoa are upon the walls. The mountain on the north-east side is covered by its mouldering towers, and the rock itself has been excavated so as to exhibit stately magazines and chambers, the sides of which were lined with coloured stucco. It is surprising the inhabitants of Balaclava do not use these caves; for they are very habitable, and the stucco is still in the highest preservation. We entered one, which was a spacious oblong chamber, lined throughout with stucco, and somewhat resembling the famous *Piscina mirabile*, near the supposed villa of Lucullus, at Baia, in Italy. We could form no conjecture for what purpose this place was intended, except as a granary or storeroom; it bore no marks of any aqueous deposit upon its sides, and was at the same time dry and in perfect preservation; therefore it could not have served as a reservoir for water. The mountains which surround the port are of red and white marble, full of cracks and fissures, but calculated for ample quarries, if worked beyond the surface. The shore is in some parts covered by a fine glittering sand, the particles of which consist wholly of gold-coloured mica, in a state of extreme division, making the most beautiful writing sand that can be used; and, as it may be obtained in any quantity, would answer very well as an article of commerce. There has been nothing of the kind yet sold by stationers which can be compared with the sand of Balaclava; for when scattered over fresh writing, it produces an effect as if the ink had been covered with minute scales of polished gold, which it will retain for any number of years.

The appearance of so much mica might induce an opinion, that a foundation of rocks, of a formation anterior to those which surround the port, cannot be very remote; but there is no part of the world where geological phenomena are so extraordinary. Pallas often confessed, that in all his travels he had never met with similar appearances. It is impossible to conjecture the depth at which the primitive foundation of granite lies; there are no traces of any such substance, not even among the pebbles on the coast. The strata of the Crimea have been formed by a process so inexplicable, that no attention to their position will afford matter for any regular systematic arrangement. Advancing from the Isthmus of Perecop, towards the chain of mountains which line all the southern coast, the great northern plain of the peninsula, consisting of a soft calcareous deposit, by an alternate series of depressed surfaces continually sinks towards the south. Almost all the principal elevations of the globe rise from the east, and fall towards the west. The declivities of the Crimea, and the precipitous sides of its mountains, are all opposed to the south. Perhaps a familiar exposition of these geological features may be afforded, by saying, that the perceptible elevations of the peninsula, visible even in its plains, resemble, by their alternate order, the teeth of a saw.

Towards the south, its highest mountains are all broken off abruptly, as if by the sinking of the main bed in the depths of the Black Sea. Towards the north, a tertiary deposit of calcareous matter, filled with the remains of shells, extends beyond the Isthmus, even to the Dnieper. Thus the exterior, or upper strata, of the peninsula, consists of calcareous matter, of very recent formation, in which there is nothing otherwise remarkable than the proof they afford, by the remains of marine bodies, of the draining of the waters from the great plain of Tartary—a subject we shall not now further discuss. But the wonder is, that where mountains have attained an elevation of above 1200 feet, no trace, either of primitive granite, or, as a leader to it, of any regular schistose deposit, should appear. Beneath these enormous calcareous masses, pillars, if they may be so called, of marble, trap, clay, common limestone, and schistus, make their appearance in parallel and almost vertical veins, propping up the superincumbent strata. Pallas forcibly illustrates their position by observing, that they stand like books upon the shelf of a library. These veins alternate with each other; and although they are somewhat inclined, leaning from north-west towards the south-east, yet their position in certain instances is nearly vertical. These extraordinary phenomena may be discerned all along the south-western coast; and that the depth to which they extend is very great, will be evident from the representation of the marble mountains of Balaclava, whose precipitous elevation from the sea bespeaks a corresponding depth below the water. When the veins of clay are washed away by the sea, either vast chasms are left, or the neighbouring veins fall in; as it happened upon the south coast at Kütchückoy, not long ago, when a whole village was buried, which the late empress rebuilt at her own expense. In the clay is sometimes veined slate, and often blocks of wood, so impregnated with bitumen that it burns like coal. The coast of Balaclava is entirely of marble; more towards the north-west, as at the monastery of St George, it consists of black slate; farther on, the other substances occur, in the order and position already described. To the north of the coast these veins are covered by calcareous matter, extremely full of the remains of organised bodies. The extraneous fossils of the Crimea are very curious; many of them relate to animals now unknown. Of these may be mentioned the *lapis nummularius*, which is very common here, and rare every where else. It is found about the pyramids of Egypt, and in some parts of France. The streets of Balaclava, I have reason to believe, are exactly the same now as they were in very ancient times. They resemble what Pompeii would be, if it was again inhabited according to its ancient form. The principal street of Balaclava is as narrow as that which has been exposed at Pompeii, and paved in the same manner, only the materials are variegated red and white marble instead of lava, and their appearance proves that the marble of Balaclava is susceptible of a very high polish. The shops are also like those of Pompeii, and the inhabitants all of them Greeks. Their uniform adherence to the ancient costume of their country, though a little theatrical, supported the illusion. They wore helmets; but these being made of green and red morocco, and not a little greasy with use, might be said to serve rather for a caricature than a portrait of their progenitors. Their market of fruit is a very good one, particularly for melons. I went into one of their melon shops, which contained about 2000 water melons, piled in a regular square mass, selling for ten copeeks the dozen—less than a halfpenny each. The water melon of the Crimea does not attain half the size in which it is seen at Naples, but the flavour is nearly as fine. At Cherson, which is more to the north, it grows as large as in Italy. Vines cover the porticoes of all the doors in Balaclava; and so rapid is the growth of that plant, that, in two years, if they told us truth, a vine yielded two bushels of grapes. They have no foreign commerce. The rest of their shops were appropriated to the sale of the few necessaries which the inhabitants require; who seemed

to lead a very idle life, smoking, taking coffee, chewing tobacco or opium, lounging about the streets, or playing at chess or at draughts in the coffee-houses, or before the doors of their houses. We observed a game here which was quite new to us; the Greeks call it *mangala*, and I have since seen it at Constantinople. It is played with a board having two rows of parallel partitions, into each of which was placed a certain number of small shells, such as the natives of Guinea use for money.

We found it necessary to leave our carriage at Balaclava, in order to visit the celebrated valley of Baidar; the passage to which is performed on horseback, over high mountains, covered with wood to their summits, and, on that account, having more of the Appenine than the Alpine character. Those which skirt the coast, and which we shall presently describe, can be compared to neither.

CHAPTER XXI.

FROM THE HERACLEOTIC CHERSONESUS, ALONG THE SOUTH COAST OF THE CRIMEA.

There is no part of the Crimea which has attracted the notice of preceding travellers so much as the valley of Baidar. It has been described under the pompous titles of the Tauric Arcadia, and Crimean Tempe, with much warmth of fancy, and, as might be expected, with some fallacy of representation. If any attempt is here made to dispel the illusion thus excited, it is because those who come after may not meet with disappointment. "Even the vales of Caucasus," says Pallas, "far surpass this celebrated spot." It will not admit of a comparison with many of the beautiful scenes in Switzerland, nor even with those in Norway and Sweden. A very extensive cultivated plain, surrounded by high mountains, may be considered as one of those pleasing prospects which call to mind the description given by Johnson of his Abyssinian vale; but, being without water as an ornament, must be deemed deficient in a principal object belonging to picturesque scenery. The valley itself, abstracting the consideration of the mountains around, may be compared to many parts of Britain, particularly the vales of Kent and Surrey. It is rather more than ten miles in length, and six in breadth; so beautifully cultivated, that the eye roams over meadows, woods, and rich corn-fields, enclosed and intersected by green hedges and garden plantations. The villages are neat, and the inhabitants healthy. Protected from violent winds, and irrigated by clear streams which fall from the hills imperceptibly through the fields, it seemed a happy retreat; and our ride through it was very pleasing. The mode of enclosure, and the manner of cultivation, resembled those used in our own country. The mountains, as well as the plain, were thick set with oak, wild pear, crab, and carnelian cherry-trees, whose foliage shaded the road, and protected us from the scorching rays of the sun, which dart with uncommon force into this valley. Our lodging at night and our meals by day, were entirely among Tartars; and this circumstance gave us an opportunity of seeing the domestic habits of that people. When a stranger arrives, they conduct him into the apartment destined for the men, and present him with a basin, water, and a clean napkin, to wash his hands. Then they place before him whatever their dwelling affords of curd, cream, honey in the comb, poached eggs, roasted fowls, or fruit. After the meal is over, the basin and water are brought in as before; because all the Tartars, like the Turks and other oriental nations, eat with their fingers, and use no forks. Then, if in the house of a rich Tartar, a long pipe is presented, with a tube of cherry-tree wood, tipped with amber or ivory. After this, carpets and cushions are laid for the guests, that they may repose. All the houses of the Tartars, even the cottages of the poor, are extremely clean, being often whitewashed. The floor is generally of earth; but smooth, firm, dry, and covered with mats and carpets. The meanest Tartar possesses a double dwelling; one for himself and his guests, and the other for his women. They do not allow their most intimate friends to enter the place allotted for the female part of the family. With so much cleanliness, we were quite surprised to find the itch a very prevalent disorder; especially among the poor. It was also difficult to escape the attacks of venomous insects and vermin. The tarantula, scorpion, cockroach, different kinds of lice, bugs, fleas, flies, and ants, more or less incommoded us wherever we rested; and we found it was necessary to reconcile ourselves to the appearance, every now and then, of a few large toads crawling near our beds. With all these inconveniences, we nevertheless deemed the change from a Russian palace to a Tartar cottage very desirable. In the houses of Russian grandees, of whatever rank or station, unwholesome filth is ill concealed by external splendour; but the floor and walls of a Tartar's residence, be it but a cottage, are white and clean. Even the place in which his fire burns is unsoiled by smoke; and if the traveller is properly cautioned to avoid the contact of woollen clothes and carpets, he may consider himself secure.

A favourite beverage of sour milk mixed with water, the *yowrt* of the Turks, is found in request with the Tartars as among the Laplanders. They all shave their heads, both young and old; and wear in their houses a sort of skull-cap, over which in winter is placed a larger and loftier helmet of wool, or, during summer, a turban. Their legs in winter are swathed in cloth bandages, like those worn throughout Russia, and their feet covered by *labkas*. In summer both legs and feet are quite naked. Their shirts, like those in Turkey, are wide and loose at the sleeves, hanging down below the ends of their fingers. If they have occasion to use their hands, either to eat or to work, they cast back the sleeve of the shirt upon the shoulder, and leave the arm bare. The jacket or waistcoat is generally of silk and cotton; and the trousers being made very large, full, and loose, though bound tight below the knee, fall over in thick folds upon the calf of the leg. In the waistcoat is a small pocket, just below the breast, in which the steel and flint are kept for lighting their pipes. Sometimes in summer they cover the feet by morocco slippers, but these are always taken off when they enter their apartments. Upon similar occasions we took off our boots, which was a troublesome ceremony; but they were evidently uneasy if we sat down without attending to this point of etiquette. They have no chairs in their houses; a single stool may be observed, about three inches high, for the purpose of supporting a tray during their meals. This stool is often ornamented, either by carved work, or inlaid mother-of-pearl. The use of a carpet and matting for the floor is universal; sometimes, as a substitute, they employ thick cloths of their own manufacture from goats' hair; and these are exported to Constantinople. Of whatever material the covering of the floor may be, they use great pains to keep it clean; notwithstanding, it is apt to swarm with vermin. During the summer months, the men make very little use of that part of the dwelling which is peculiarly set apart for them. Their chief delight consists in the open air; sleeping at night either beneath the shed before their door, or under the shade of the fine spreading trees which they cultivate near their houses. In the principal chamber of a Tartar dwelling there is a particular part which bears the name of *sopha*. This is a platform, raised twelve inches from the floor, occupying one entire side of the apartment, not for the purpose of a seat, but as a place for their household chests, the *dii domestici*, and heaps of carpets, mats, cushions, and clothes. The same custom may be observed in the tents of the Calmucks. Though simplicity is a prevailing characteristic both in the manners and dress of the Tartars, yet some of their customs betray a taste for finery. Their pillows are covered with coloured linen; and the napkins, for their frequent ablutions, which hang upon their walls, are embroidered and fringed. If one of their guests falls asleep, though but for a few minutes and by accident, during the day, they bring him water to wash himself as soon as they perceive he is awake. In their diet they make great

use of honey; and their mode of keeping and taking bees accords with the usual simplicity of their lives. From the trunks of young trees, about six inches in diameter, they form cylinders, by scooping out almost all except the bark; and then, closing their extremities with plaster or mud, they place them horizontally, piled one upon another, in the gardens for hives. They often opened these cylinders to give us fresh honey; and the bees were detached, merely by being held over a piece of burning paper, without any aid of sulphur. The honey of the Crimea is of a very superior quality; the bees, as in Greece, feeding on blossoms of the wild thyme of the mountains, and such flowers as the country spontaneously affords. Every Tartar cottage has its garden, in the cultivation of which the owner finds his principal amusement. Vegetation is so rapid, that in two years, as I have stated in the account of Balaclava, vines not only shoot up so as to form a shade before the doors, but are actually laden with fruit. They delight to have their houses, as it were, buried in foliage. These, consisting only of one story, with low flat roofs, beneath trees which spread immense branches quite over them, constitute villages, which at a distance are only known by the tufted grove in which they lie concealed. When the traveller arrives, not a building is to be seen; it is only after passing between the trees, and beneath their branches, that he begins to perceive the cottages, overshadowed by an exuberant vegetation of the walnut, the mulberry, the vine, the fig, the olive, the pomegranate, the peach, the apricot, the plum, the cherry, and the tall black poplar; all of which, intermingling their clustering produce, form the most beautiful and fragrant canopies that can be imagined.

In every Tartar house they preserve one or more copies of the Koran; these are always in manuscript, and generally written in very beautiful characters. Their children are early taught, not only to read, but to copy them. The size of the cap, or bonnet, is all that distinguishes the priests of the different villages from the rest of the community, being made much larger for them, and rising to a greater height from the head. The horses of the country, though not equal to those of Circassia, are remarkable for their high breed, as well as for their beauty and swiftness. They are small and very sure-footed, but rather stouter than the Circassian horses, which may be considered the fleetest and most beautiful race of coursers in the world. If travellers be provided with an order from the governor of the district, the Tartars must provide horses, lodging, and even provisions, gratis. We had this order, and hope it will ever be superfluous in Englishmen to add, that no use was made of the privilege annexed to its possession—a mode of conduct perfectly consistent with the ordinary course of English customs and opinions, but diametrically opposite to those of Russia, where it is considered a reflection upon the understanding to bestow a thought upon remuneration, unless it is a matter of compulsion.*

To avoid the intense heat in the middle of the day, we began our journey towards the coast on Tuesday the 5th of August, at five o'clock in the morning. Leaving the valley of Baidar, we ascended the mountains which close it in towards the south, and by dint of absolute climbing among rocks and trees, through a very Alpine pass, at last attained the heights above the sea. Here the descent began towards the coast, and a prospect opened of vastness and terror, which possessed the boldest sources of the sublime. Naked rocks rose perpendicular to such an amazing elevation, that even the wide sea, which seemed in another world below, and dashed its waves against their bases, was unheard at the immense distance, and appeared insignificant compared with the grandeur to which it was opposed. Between two of their craggy summits, we were conducted to the *merdveen* (signifying *stairs* in the Tartar language), the steps of which, in ages past all record, were cut in the natural rock; here, alighting from our horses, and committing them to the chance of their own caution, we began a laborious and difficult descent. There is a pass of this nature, but less precipitous, in the island of Caprea, near Naples. It leads from the town of Caprea to Anacaprea; but horses are not seen there. The only beasts of burden are asses, and those are generally laden with faggots. In the Alps there are similar scenes, but not of greater boldness; and they have not the addition of the sea in the perspective. After we had completed the passage of the merdveen, being still at a great height above the sea, we continued to skirt the bases of rocks towards the east, until we reached the village of Kütchückoy, which hangs upon a lofty declivity below the great southern range of perpendicular precipices. The doubtful path to this village is so narrow and dangerous, that with any other than a Tartar horse few would venture; and even so provided, it is often necessary to alight and walk.

From this village to Aloupka, still proceeding by a narrow undulating and devious track among the rocks, at a considerable elevation above the sea, we enjoyed a prospect of the boldest scenery which can be found in the Crimea. Immediately before us we beheld the stupendous Criû-metopon, mentioned by Strabo, and other ancient geographers; this projecting into the bosom of the deep, together with the opposite promontory of Carambe, upon the coast of Paphlagonia, divides the Black Sea into two parts, so that vessels sailing between the two capes can discern the land on either side. The ancient anonymous geographer, whose writings were chiefly extracted from Arrian and Scymnus Chius, says, that Iphigenia, carried from Aulis, came to this country. Procopius, speaking of the Taurica Chersonesus, also mentions the Temple of Diana, where Iphigenia, daughter of Agamemnon, was priestess, and, according to him, the Tauri were her votaries. It is worthy of note, as we shall soon show, that a promontory and village bearing at this day the name of Parthenit, evidently corrupted from Parthenium, is found to the eastward of the Criû-metopon, in the vicinity of Aloupka. Thus, while Strabo and Ovid place the promontory of Parthenium in the Heracleotic Chersonesus, other circumstances seem to fix its situation near the most southern point of the Crimea; and should this be admitted, it would only assign, as in the history of other popular superstitions, a difference of locality to the same rites. Leucate, in the Ionian Sea, is not the only promontory which has been celebrated for the story of the Lover's Leap.

As we advanced, the wide prospect of the Black Sea extended below on our right. Upon our left, towering to the clouds, and sometimes capped by them, appeared lofty naked precipices; now projecting in vast promontories, now receding, and forming bays, surrounded by craggy rocks, whose sloping sides resemble those mighty theatres of ancient Greece, prepared more by nature than by the art of man.* The upper strata of these mountains, notwithstanding their prodigious elevation, are all of limestone. Not a single fragment of granite is any where to be seen. Beneath the precipices, and extending to the water's edge, appears a bold and broken declivity, covered by villages, gardens, woods, and cultivated spots. Laurels flourished in several places, and these were formerly more abundant; but the Tartars, separated in this paradise from all communication with the other inhabitants of the Crimea, believing that strangers came only to see those trees, and dreading a notoriety of their retreat, endeavour to destroy them wherever they appeared.

* [This remark is unfortunately too true, and receives a striking confirmation from an anecdote related by Dr Lyall, vol. I. p. 362. At Karasubazar, his party could get no dinner until they satisfied the inhabitants *that they were not Russians*. On explanation, it appeared that the Russians often take possession of rooms, dine, drink coffee and tea, wine, &c. at pleasure, and instead of paying a proper remuneration, throw a trifling sum to the host and depart. Lyall, who is generally an advocate of the Russian nobles, confesses that this is a general practice throughout the Russian dominions, and that most of the aristocracy and military act thus discreditably without the slightest hesitation.]

* The ancient theatres of Greece sometimes consisted of an entire mountain, to the natural form of which the seats were adjusted. Of this description is the theatre at the Temple of Esculapius, in Epidauria; at Telmessus, in the Gulf of Glaucus; and at Chaeronea, in Bœotia.

In the evening we arrived at Aloupka. The inhabitants flocked to visit us, and, as if determined to contradict the story of the laurels, overwhelmed us with hospitality. Each person that entered our little chamber deposited his offering, either of fresh filberts, walnuts, mulberries, figs, pears, or other fruit. "Brandy," they said, "they could not offer us; for abstaining from the use of it, it is not kept in their houses." They are less addicted to opium than the Turks, and therefore less slothful; yet they deem it their greatest happiness to sit still, to smoke, or to sleep, having nothing whereon to think, and as little as possible to do. They sow only as much corn as may be necessary for their own consumption. Their pipes and their horses are, perhaps, objects of as great affection as their wives. We generally found them stretched on the flat roofs of their cottages, lying upon thick mats, beneath the shade of their favourite trees, either asleep, or inhaling the fumes of tobacco. The business of harvest had, however, roused some of them into a state of activity. As we continued our journey, we found them occupied in collecting it. They beat out their corn as soon as it is gathered; and their mode may rather be called trampling than thrashing. After selecting an even spot of ground, they fix a pole or stake into the earth, placing the corn in a circle round it, so as to form a circumference of about eight or nine yards in diameter; they then attach a horse by a long cord to the pole, and continue driving him round and round upon the corn, until the cord is wound upon the pole; after this, turning his head in an opposite direction, he is again set going, until the cord is untwisted. By this process, they do not fail to obtain the whole of the corn clean from the sheaf, but the straw is destroyed. The chaff is afterwards collected, and carefully housed for fodder. They carry in all their corn upon horses; but their manner of reaping and mowing exactly resembles ours, and their hedges and gates are made in the same way.

The village of Aloupka is beautifully situated near the shore, but entirely concealed from the view in approaching it by groves of fruit-trees. The scenery every where along the coast is of a nature which it is difficult to describe by any comparison. Such fertility and rural beauty is, I believe, no where else situated equally near the waters of any sea, nor environed by objects of such excessive grandeur. The descent towards the shore is so steep and rapid, that it seems as if the villages, with their groves and gardens, might one day, by heavy rains, be swept into the deep; at the same time, impending cliffs above them menace fearful ruin by the fall of rocks, which every now and then give way, and whose enormous fragments have occasionally halted, where they appear every instant ready to rush forward. High above all are the lofty and rugged summits of those mountains which give such a decided character to the southern coast of the Crimea, that no geographer has neglected to notice them. Strabo forcibly describes their situation and nature. If by some tremendous earthquake, or the effect of sudden thaw, a portion of these cliffs has been separated from its native bed, and rushing into the Black Sea, has formed a promontory, or towering bulwark, in the midst of the waves, its summit is almost invariably covered by some ancient fortress, the ruins of which still remain in places almost inaccessible. Those works are for the most part attributed to the Genoese, yet some of them are of Grecian origin. The hardihood and enterprise with which they were erected, cannot fail to astonish the traveller, as there seems to be no eminence nor precipice too lofty or too dangerous for the people by whom they were constructed.

On Wednesday, August 6th, we left Aloupka; and, after journeying entirely in groves, where mulberry-trees shading our road, presented at the same time the largest and most delicious fruit, arrived at the village of Musghor. Here we found a few Greeks, established as part of a cordon to guard the southern part of the peninsula, who were busied in distilling brandy from mulberries—a weak but palatable spirit, as clear as water. The scenery rather improved in beauty, and became yet bolder than before, as we drew near to a place called Derykêuy, inhabited by a small Greek colony, close to the shore. We found them employed in shipping timber of a very bad quality for Sudack, and other ports lying to the eastward. Upon the beach were some hulks of Turkish vessels, quite rotten; yet in such barks they venture across the Black Sea to Constantinople, although, as our interpreter observed, "it would be indiscreet to risk by their conveyance the safety even of a letter." Their wretched condition proved that the frequent shipwrecks in the Black Sea are owing in great measure to their vessels not being *sea-worthy*.

If there exists on earth a spot which may be described as a terrestrial paradise, it is that which intervenes between Kütchückoy and Sudack, on the south coast of the Crimea. Protected by encircling Alps from every cold and blighting wind, and only open to those breezes which are wafted across the sea from the south, the inhabitants enjoy every advantage of climate and situation. From the mountains, continual streams of crystal water pour down upon their gardens, in which every species of fruit known in the rest of Europe, and many that are not, attain the highest perfection. Neither unwholesome exhalations, nor chilling winds, nor venomous insects, nor poisonous reptiles, nor hostile neighbours, infest their blissful territory. The life of its inhabitants resembles that of the Golden Age. The soil, like a hot-bed, rapidly puts forth such a variety of spontaneous produce, that labour becomes merely an amusing exercise. Peace and plenty crown their board; while the repose they so much admire is only interrupted by harmless thunder reverberating in the rocks above them, or by the murmur of waves upon the beach below.*

At Derykêuy, the Tartar children were assembled in the school of the village, learning to read. The eldest boy led the way; pronouncing the lesson distinctly in a loud tone, from a manuscript copy of the Koran. The rest, to the number of twenty, were squatted in the Tartar mode upon little low benches, accompanying with their voices, and keeping time by nodding their heads. It was amusing to observe the readiness with which their little president detected any of them in an error, in the midst of all the noise they made; although reading himself with the utmost effort of his lungs. In the south of the Crimea, the remains of the Genoese language are not quite extinct. Now and then an expression escapes even from the lips of a Tartar, which may evidently be referred to that people. During their long residence in the Crimea, they not only introduced many of their own terms to the native language of the peninsula, but they also incorporated many Tartar and Greek expressions with the Italian, which may still be observed in use among the inhabitants of Genoa. I collected several examples of this nature. In the Tartar language, *kardasch* signifies a brother, or bosom friend; and the word *cardascia* is now used with the same interpretation at Genoa. *Macramé*, a towel, in Tartar, is *macrami* in the Genoese. *Barba*, uncle, in Tartar, is exactly so pronounced, and with the same signification, in Genoa. Again, *mangia*, to eat, among the Genoese, is also *mangia* with the Tartars. *Savun*, soap, is *sabun* in the Crimea; *fortunna*, a sea-storm, *fortunnà*; with many others, in which the affinity is less striking. The most remarkable instance is, that *bari*, which signifies a cask or bar-

* [It was remarked by Dr Lyall, in his visit to the south of the Crimea, that it was singular the Russian nobles should not make so delightful a country a place of permanent residence, or at least of summer sojourn. Since that time, however, the coast has been covered with chateaus and villas belonging to the first families in Russia. Amongst the rest, Count Vorontzof has built a magnificent castle at Aloupka. Dr Clarke has not mentioned the town of Yalta, which is only a few miles from Aloupka, as at the time of his visit it was a wretched Greek village, but, under the protecting hand of Count Vorontzof, has become a very agreeable town, with good hotels and an excellent harbour. It was from this port that Mr Spencer started with the count on his voyage round the coast of the Black Sea in 1836, having come there in a steam-boat from Odessa. See his Travels, vol. I. p 231.]

rel in Genoa, is pronounced by the Tartars *baril;* so as to bring it very near to our English name for the same thing. The Tartars, moreover, call a barber *berber;* which they may have derived from the Genoese word *barbé.* I have already mentioned the swarms of locusts, which, from causes quite unknown, have visited the Crimea of late years in very unusual and extraordinary numbers. These have proved destructive to all the vineyards of the new settlers; but as the Tartars only cultivate the vine for the pleasure of eating its fruit, they disregard the visitation, which proves so mournful a scourge to the natives of other countries who have establishments upon the coast.

Soon after leaving Derykêuy, we arrived at the ruin of an old monastery, most delightfully situated on the side of the mountains which slope towards the sea, with a rapid rivulet of the purest crystal water running close to its walls. All that now remains of the original building is a small chapel, containing images of the saints, in *al fresco* paintings, upon stucco, although nearly effaced. Here my unfortunate friend and predecessor in the journey, the late Mr Tweddell, of Trinity College, Cambridge, now buried in the Temple of Theseus, at Athens, had left the tributary offering of his Athenian muse to the genius of the place, in some verses written with a pencil, and the addition of his name upon the stucco. Among the trees, at the time we arrived, were the pomegranate in full bloom, the spreading mulberry, the wild vine, creeping over oaks, maples, and carnelian cherry-trees, and principally the tall black poplar, which, every where towering among the rocks above the shrubs, added greatly to the dignity and graceful elegance of the scene.*

The tertian fever, which I had caught among the caverns of Inkerman, had rendered me so weak after leaving this beautiful spot, that it was with the greatest difficulty I could sit upon my horse; and one of its violent paroxysms coming on afterwards at Yourzuf, I remained for some time extended upon the bare earth in the principal street of the village. Its peaceful and hospitable inhabitants regarded me as a victim of the plague, and, of course, were prevented from offering the succour they would otherwise gladly have bestowed. My companions were far advanced upon the journey; for I had fallen insensibly in the rear of our party, and they believed me employed in collecting plants. When they returned, towards evening, in search of me, our interpreter prevailed on an old woman to allow us a miserable hovel for the night's accommodation; and having also begged a small piece of opium in the village, I was soon rendered insensible of the misery and wretchedness of my situation. Yourzuf, called Yourzova by the Russians, is the Gorzubitai of Procopius. The fortress, which he describes as built by Justinian, still remains, though in ruins, upon the high rocks above the beautiful little bay of the town.

Being unable to continue my journey on horseback, I engaged with the master of a Turkish boat, laden with timber, and bound to Sudack, for a passage to Alusta. Mr Cripps, with the rest of our party, continued the tour of the coast as before. As soon as our vessel had cleared the Bay of Yourzuf, I observed an immense promontory towards the east, which it was necessary for us to double; and having done this, we discerned the whole coast eastward, as far as Sudack, which place the mariners pointed out for me as then within view, although barely visible. The lofty promontory we had passed is called by the Tartars the mountain Aijudagh. Mr Cripps's route on shore led directly over it; and he observed upon the top the remains of an ancient monastery, which may have stood on the site of one of those temples dedicated to the Taurican Diana, as the village to which he descended immediately afterwards still retains, in the name Partenak, or Partenit, an evident etymology of Parthenium. A few years ago, four columns, two of green and two others of white marble, were found lying on the site of the monastery and among its ruins. Prince Potemkin sent away two of them to decorate a church then building in or near Cherson. When Mr Cripps arrived, he found only one column remaining, which was of white marble, near twelve feet in length, and eighteen inches in diameter. Stretching out somewhat farther from the shore, we had a fine view, east and west, of the whole coast of the Crimea, from the Criû-metopon to Sudack. Mr Cripps being on the heights, enjoyed a prospect still more extensive, and observed our little bark like a speck upon the waves. He halted during the heat of the day, according to the usual custom observed by the Tartars in travelling, at a place called Lambat, the Lampas of the ancients; and in the evening, a little before sunset, arrived at Alusta, as our boat was coming to an anchor off the shore.

From this place we had a fine view of the mountain Tchedirdagh, the Trapezus of Strabo, whose lofty summit appeared above a range of clouds which veiled all the lower part. Its perpendicular height does not exceed 1300 feet; but it rises so rapidly from the coast about Alusta, that its seeming altitude is much greater. Almost all the Crimea may be seen from its summit in clear weather. The Tartars affirm, that a great extent of country beyond the isthmus of Perecop may be discerned from this mountain. There is nothing to interrupt the view as far as human vision can possibly extend; since the whole district to the north is as flat as the rest of the great oriental plain. The village of Alusta was once a place of considerable importance, and still exhibits some marks of its ancient consequence. The ruins of the citadel, which, according to Procopius, was erected by Justinian, together with the fortress of Yourzuf, are still seen upon the heights contiguous to the sea. Three of its towers remain, and a stone wall, twelve feet in height, and near seven feet in thickness. At present, the place consists only of a few Tartar huts, and in one of these we passed the night; having observed nothing remarkable except a very small breed of buffaloes, the females of which were little larger than our market calves.

At Alusta we terminated our journey along the coast, and on Friday morning, August 8th, set out, by a route across the Tchetirdagh, for Akmetchet. We rode some time in the dale of Alusta, a delightful valley, full of apple, pear, plum, and pomegranate trees, with vineyards and olive-grounds; and, beginning to ascend the mountain, arrived at the village of Shuma. Here the Tartars brought for our breakfast that enormous kind of cucumber before mentioned, the seed of which, since brought to England, has not thrived in our country. The fruit is as white as snow, and, notwithstanding the prodigious size and length to which it attains, has all the crispness and fresh flavour peculiar to a young cucumber. It would become a valuable plant for the poor, if we could contrive to naturalise it. This and other sorts of the same vegetable, together with a variety of melons, and the *cucurbita pepo,* or pumpkin, cover the borders of a Tartar garden. The custom of boiling for their meals, the tendrils and young fruit of the pumpkin, is common not only in the Crimea, but over all the Turkish empire. We were often treated with this vegetable, and found it very palatable.

The very weak state of my health would not allow me to ascend the summit of the Tchetirdagh; but Mr Cripps left me at Shuma for that purpose. The road I followed conducted me along the western side of the mountain, and, after all, at no great distance from its top; as my companion, having gained the highest point, called to me and was distinctly heard. He collected some rare plants, and confirmed, by his own observation, what has been before related concerning the moun-

* "The forests in this tract are not of a very lofty growth; firs, however, and some oaks, are found, and magnificent walnut trees. The Tartars in the spring, when the sap is rising, pierce the walnut-trees, and put in a spigot for some time. When this is withdrawn, a clear sweet liquor flows out, which, when coagulated, they use as sugar. In different places we saw a few cypress-trees growing in the burial-grounds; they were pointed out to us as rarities, and brought from Stamboul. On the plains above the sea-coast are some fine olive-trees. Lombardy poplars abound every where, and are very beautiful."—HEBER'S *MS. Journal.*

tains of the Crimea. They skirt only the southern coast of the peninsula, beginning at Caffa, and extending as far as Balaclava. The town of Akmetchet appeared to him as immediately beneath his view; and towards the north, the whole territory exhibited an uninterrupted plain. On the west, the chain of mountains seemed to terminate at Baktcheserai; so that a geographical line may be traced for the map of the Crimea, from Caffa to Stara Crim; thence, south of Karasubazar, on to Akmetchet, and to Baktcheserai. To the north of this line the whole territory, not only of the Crimea, but beyond the isthmus, over all the Ukraine, is one vast steppe, consisting of a calcareous deposit, containing the remains of marine animals. All the higher parts of the Tchetirdagh exhibit a mass of limestone very compact, and of a grey colour. Pallas says, that upon friction it is slightly fetid; a character I neglected to notice. The mountain probably received its ancient name of Trapezus from the table form of its summit. Its lower district is covered by groves impenetrable to the rays of the sun; where the only blossom seen decking the soil was the *colchicum autumnale*, or *common meadow-saffron*. Through these groves I continued to skirt the whole of its western side until I came out upon a spacious table of naked limestone towards the north, immediately under a frightful precipice of the same nature, on the top of which I could plainly discern my companion with his guides. From this spot I was sufficiently elevated to look down upon the summits of almost all the neighbouring mountains, which appeared below me, covered with wood; and in the fertile valleys between them was abundance of corn and pasture lands. So fertile are those valleys, that after descending into them, single ears of wild barley, and wild rye, are seen growing in all situations. About two hours of continual descent brought me from this spot to the village of Derykêuy, to which place Professor Pallas had sent his carriage, in order to conduct us once more to his comfortable and most hospitable mansion in Akmetchet.

About two miles from Derykêuy, a Turkish nobleman, at a village—called, I believe, on account of his residence, Mahmoud Sultan—sent to request that we would visit his house upon the banks of the Salgir. He came out to meet us, attended by his dragoman and other menials, as Turks always are, and invited us to return with him and drink coffee. Every thing about his dwelling, which stood in the midst of gardens, had an air of peace and repose. A marten had built its nest within his chamber, and he had made holes in the window for it to pass in search of food for its young. This practice is not uncommon in the cottages of the Tartars, who consider such a visit from the marten a favourable omen. I have also since observed the same superstition in many parts of Turkey; and it is needless to describe its prevalence among the lower order of people in England. Upon the tombs both of Turks and Armenians are often seen two little cavities, which the relations of the deceased have scooped in the stone, and continually supply with water; considering it to be of good omen for departed friends, that birds should come and drink upon their graves. Such Armenian tombstones, beautifully wrought in white marble, and covered with inscriptions, may now be almost classed among the antiquities of the Crimea. They bear very remote dates; and, like others seen in Turkey, express by certain symbols the former occupation of those whose memorials they bear. Thus, for a money-changer, they express in carved work the sort of shovel used by bankers; for a tailor, a pair of shears; or for a gardener, a spade.

We arrived at Akmetchet as Professor Pallas was preparing to celebrate the marriage of his daughter, according to the rites of the Greek church, with Baron Wimfeldt, a Hungarian general in the Russian service. The wedding took place on the following day, Saturday, August 9th, after a superb dinner. We accompanied the parties to church. At the door they were met by the priest; the general was asked, if he was already related to the lady by any tie of blood; on his answering in the negative, the same question was again put to the intended bride, and was answered in the same way. They were then asked, whether the engagement they were about to form was voluntary on their part; and having answered in the affirmative, were permitted to enter a few paces within the church. A bible and crucifix were then placed before them, and large lighted wax tapers, decorated with ribbons, in their hands; after certain prayers had been read, and the ring put upon the bride's finger, the floor was covered by a piece of scarlet satin, and a table was placed before them with the communion vessels. The priest having tied their hands together with bands of the same coloured satin, and placed a chaplet of flowers upon their heads, administered the sacrament; and afterwards led them, thus bound together, three times round the communion table, followed by the bride's father and the bride-maid. During this ceremony, the choristers chanted a hymn; and, after it was concluded, a scene of general kissing took place among all present, and the parties returned to the house of the bride's father, where tea and other refreshments were served to all who came to congratulate the married couple.

We remained a month at Akmetchet before my health was again established. During this time I had an opportunity of seeing so remarkable a ceremony at a Jew's wedding, that a short account of it will perhaps be thought not out of place at the conclusion of this chapter.

For two or three days prior to the wedding, all the neighbours and friends of the betrothed couple assembled together, to testify their joy by the most tumultuous rioting, dancing, and feasting. On the day of marriage, the girl, accompanied by the priest and her relations, was led blindfolded to the river Salgir, which flowed at the bottom of a small valley in front of Professor Pallas's house; here she was undressed by women who were stark naked, and, destitute of any other covering except the handkerchief by which her eyes were concealed, was plunged three times in the river. After this, being again dressed, she was led, blindfolded as before, to the house of her parents, accompanied by all her friends, who were singing, dancing, and performing music before her. In the evening her intended husband was brought to her; but as long as the feast continued, she remained with her eyes bound.

The garrison of Akmetchet paraded every morning from seven o'clock until ten; but troops in a worse state of discipline, or more unfit for service, were perhaps never seen. The whole military force of the Crimea amounted at this time to 15,000 men, of which number 1500 were in garrison at Akmetchet. There were seven complete regiments in the peninsula, besides two companies of invalids, and a Greek battalion at Balaclava. At Perecop there was a garrison of invalids; and garrisons were also established at Yenikalé, Kertchy, Caffa, Karasubazar, Akmetchet, Baktcheserai, Koslof, and Aktiar, where there were two regiments. Yet notwithstanding the reputed rigour of the emperor, his attention to the minutiæ of discipline, and his passion for military pursuits, a system of somnolency and stupidity existed in all public affairs, which rendered the force of the Russian empire a mere puppet-show. It was Punch with all his family; or a herd of swine in armour, who endured hard blows, kicks, and canes, with perfect patience, but were incapable of activity or effect. Such was the disposition of the guard along the coast, and such the nature of the country, that an army might have been landed, and marched up to the sentinels at Akmetchet before they were observed. Detested as the Russians are by every description of inhabitant in the Crimea, their expulsion from the peninsula, if it had pleased Great Britain to restore it to the Turks, would have been a work of ease and amusement. The harbour of Nymphæum was entirely open, and unguarded both by sea and land. To the west, at Sudack, Alusta, or Yourzof, invaders would have found the Tartars greeting their arrival with tears of joy. A small band of Morean Greeks upon the coast, would be ready to join the invaders, or to fly at their approach. Arriving in the garrisoned towns, a few snoring soldiers, hardly out of drill, or a party of bloated

officers labouring under indigestion and ague, could not offer even a semblance of opposition. Any experienced general, from the armies of England, France, or Germany, might pledge his reputation for the capture of the Crimea with a thousand men. Such an event throughout the peninsula would be celebrated as a signal delivery from the worst of tyrants, and every honest heart would participate in the transports of an injured people thus emancipated.

This account may not seem to accord with the descriptions which were published of the conduct of the Russian troops in Italy, under Field-Marshal Count Suvarof. But where will Russia find another Suvarof? He was created to be a Russian general, possessing all the qualifications, and the only qualifications, which can entitle a Russian chief to the hope of victory. Among his troops, he was *generally* their commander; *individually*, their comrade and their friend. To the highest military rank in Russia, he joined the manners and the tastes of a private soldier; one moment closeted with his sovereign, the next drinking quass with his troops, eating raw turnips, divesting himself of vermin, or sleeping upon straw. He partook every interest of the privates; entered into all their little histories; mediated in their disputes; shared in their amusements; was at once their counsellor and example; in short, the hero who planned, and then led the way to victory.

CHAPTER XXII.

SECOND EXCURSION TO THE MINOR PENINSULA OF THE HERACLEOTÆ.

As we had not been able to ascertain the true situation of the most ancient of the two cities of the Chersonesians, which Strabo describes as in ruins within the Heracleotic peninsula, and Professor Pallas maintained that it must have stood on or near the point of land which forms the most western territory of the Crimea, now called Point Phanari, we determined to make a second excursion, and to traverse the minor peninsula in all directions. The Professor himself resolved to accompany us; and accordingly we left Akmetchet, in a light open carriage belonging to him, on Saturday, September 7th. The road passing through a deep ravine, we collected several specimens of the *salvia Hablitziana*, and the *centaurea myriocephala;* which latter, as the favourite food of the Crimean sheep, is supposed to give that beautiful grey colour to the wool of the lambs, so highly prized both in Turkey and Tartary as an ornament of the *calpack*, or cap worn by Tartar gentlemen, in lieu of the turban. The Professor instructed us to search for the rarest plants, in deep sands, salt marshes, and upon chalky hills. We purposely avoided entering again the town of Baktcheserai, in order to escape the interruption of ceremonial visits, passing by Eski Yourst, the ancient mausoleum of the khans, and changing horses at Katcha. Soon after leaving this last place, we turned towards the southern chain of mountains, and passed Kara Ilaes, the most pleasing village in the Crimea, beautifully situated in the entrance of a romantic defile, which leads to Shulu. On the right hand, soon after entering this defile, and upon the summits of the high mountains which form its southern side, are seen the remains of the ancient fortress of Tcherkesskerman, once possessed by the Genoese, and in remoter periods by the Circassians, as its name implies. When the former made themselves masters of the strongholds in the Crimea, they erected fortresses upon the most precipitous and inaccessible places, in the wildest retreats of the peninsula. Tcherkesskerman was one of the citadels thus constructed, and the scattered ruins of its battlements still cover the heights I have mentioned. Yet even these remains are less remarkable than those of Mankoop, on the other side of the defile; on this account we preferred making a visit to the latter, and, turning off to a village on the left hand, were provided with beautiful Tartar horses and guides for that purpose.

The fortress of Mankoop is of very extraordinary magnitude, and may be described as literally in the clouds. It covers the summit of a semicircular insulated mountain; this, from its frightful aspect, its altitude, and craggy perpendicular sides, independent of every other consideration than as a surprising work of nature, fills the mind with wonder upon entering the defile. In that singular situation, where there were no visible means of ascent towards any of the heights, much less of conveying materials for the astonishing work they completed, did the Genoese construct a citadel, perhaps without a parallel in Europe, the result of their wealth, address, and enterprise. History does not mention for what especial purpose those works were carried on by the Greeks or Genoese in the interior of the country, at such a distance from the coast; but it is natural to conjecture their use in curbing the hostile spirit of the natives towards the maritime colonial possessions. The last possessors of Mankoop were Jews. Ruined tombs of marble and stone were lying in the cemetery of their colony, beneath the trees we passed in our ascent. The whole of our passage up the mountain was steep and difficult; nor was it rendered more practicable by the amazing labours of its original possessors, whose dilapidated works rather served to impede than to facilitate our progress. The ascent had once been paved the whole way, and stairs formed, like those of the merdveen described in the last chapter; these still remain entire in many places.

When we reached the summit, we found it entirely covered with ruins of the citadel. Caverns and gloomy galleries perforated in the rock, whose original uses are now unknown, presented on every side their dark mouths. On the most elevated part of this extraordinary eminence, is a beautiful plain, covered with fine turf, among which we found the *rosa pygmæa* of Pallas, blooming in great beauty. This plain, partly fenced in by the mouldering wall of the fortress, but otherwise open to surrounding precipices, appeared to me as lofty as the cliffs along the Sussex coast, near Beachy Head. All the other mountains, valleys, hills, woods, and villages, may be discerned from this spot. While with dismay and caution we crept upon our hands and knees to look over the brink of those fearful heights, a half-clad Tartar, wild as the winds of the north, mounted, without any saddle or bridle, except the twisted stem of a wild vine, on a colt equally unsubdued, galloped to the very edge of the precipice; and there, as his horse stood prancing upon the borders of eternity, amused himself in pointing out to us the different places in the vast district which the eye commanded. We entered one of the excavated chambers; a small square apartment, leading to another on our right hand. On our left, a narrow passage conducted us to an open balcony with a parapet in front formed in the rock, upon the very face of one of the principal precipices, whence the depth below might be contemplated with less danger. Vultures beneath the view were sailing over the valleys, not seeming larger than swallows. Below these, the tops of undulating hills, covered by tufted woods, with villages amidst rocks and defiles, appeared at a depth so intimidating, that the blood chilled in beholding it. We afterwards found the remains of churches and other public buildings among the ruins, and in a more perfect state than might be expected in the Russian empire; but this is easily accounted for, by their difficulty of access. At length, being conducted to the north-eastern point of the crescent, which is the shape of the summit on which the fortress of Mankoop was constructed, and descending a few stone steps, neatly hewn in the rock, we entered by a square door into a cavern, called by the Tartars the Cape of the Winds. It has been chiselled like the rest out of the solid stone; but it is open on four sides. From the amazing prospect here commanded of all the surrounding country, it probably served as a post of military observation. The apertures, or windows, are large arched chasms in the rock; through these, a most extensive range of scenery over distant mountains and rolling clouds forms a sublime spectacle. There is nothing in any part of Europe to surpass the tremendous grandeur of the place. Below the cavern is an-

other chamber leading to several cells on its different sides; these have all been cut out of the same rock.

We pursued a different road in descending; passing beneath an old arched gateway of the citadel, once its principal entrance. This road flanks the northern side of the mountain; and the fall into the valley is so bold and profound, that it seems as if a single false step would precipitate both horse and rider. By alighting, the danger is avoided; and the terror of the descent compensated in the noblest scenery the eye ever beheld. It was dark before we reached the bottom: we had some difficulty to regain the principal road which leads through the defile, owing principally to the trees which project over all the lanes in the vicinity of Tartar villages, and so effectually obstruct the passage of persons on horseback, that we were in continual danger of being thrown; one of our party nearly lost an eye by a blow he received from a bough, which stretched quite across the path we pursued. The defile itself is not without danger in certain seasons of the year; immense masses of limestone detach themselves from the rocks above, carrying all before them in their passage. Some, from the northern precipices, had crossed the river at the bottom, and, by the prodigious velocity acquired in their descent, had actually rolled nearly half way up the opposite side. We passed some of those fragments in our way to Shulu, where we passed the night. This village belongs to Professor Pallas, and consists of a forest of walnut-trees, beneath which every dwelling is concealed. One of those trees yielded him, as he informed us on the spot, in a single season 60,000 walnuts. The ordinary price of the fruit throughout the Crimea is from eighty to a hundred copeeks for a thousand. The Professor had built himself a very magnificent seat at Shulu, but owing to his disputes with the Tartars concerning the extent of his territory, the completion of the work had been delayed when we arrived. The building is placed on the northern side of the defile, commanding a fine prospect of the valley; but, from the chalky nature of the soil in the surrounding hills, every thing had a white glare, painful to the eye, and wholly destructive of picturesque appearance. Near this hill, on one of the eminences opposite to the Professor's house, is a series of excavations similar to those of Inkerman, exhibiting the ancient retreats of Christians in cells and grottoes. One of those cavernous chambers is not less than eighty paces in length, with a proportionate breadth, and its roof is supported by pillars hewn in the rock; the stone, from the softness of its nature, did not oppose the difficulty encountered in similar works which are seen in other parts of the Crimea.

From Shulu we proceeded once more to Balaclava. In our road we passed several pits, in which the Tartars dig that kind of fuller's earth called *keff-kil*, or *mineral froth*, and by the Germans, *meerschaum*. This earth, before the capture of the Crimea, was a considerable article of commerce with Constantinople, where it was used in public baths to cleanse the hair of women. It is often sold to German merchants for the manufacture of those beautiful tobacco-pipes, which bear the name of *ecume de mer* among the French, and sell at such enormous prices, even in our own country, after they have been coloured by long use. The long process necessary to the perfection of one of those pipes, with all its circumstances, is really a curious subject. Since the interruption of commerce between the Crimea and Turkey, the substance requisite in their manufacture has been dug near the site of the ancient Iconium, in Anatolia. The first rude shape is given to the pipes on the spot where the mineral is dug, where they are pressed in a mould, and laid in the sun to harden; then they are baked in an oven, boiled in milk, and rubbed with soft leather. In this state they go to Constantinople, where there is a peculiar bazaar, or khan, for the sale of them; they are then bought up by the merchants, and sent by caravans to Pest, in Hungary. Still the form of the pipe is large and coarse. At Pest the manufacture begins which fits them for the German markets. They are there soaked for twenty-four hours in water, and then turned on a lathe. In this process many of them prove porous, and are good for nothing. Sometimes only two or three out of ten succeed. From Pest they are conveyed to Vienna, and ultimately to the fairs of Leipsic, Frankfort, Manheim, and other towns upon the Rhine, where the best sell from three to five, and even seven pounds sterling each. When the oil of tobacco, after long smoking, has given them a fine porcelain yellow, or, which is more prized, a dark tortoise-shell hue, they have been known to sell for forty or fifty pounds of our money. Their manner of digging keff-kil in the Crimea, is merely by making a hole in the ground, and there working till the sides begin to fall in, which soon happens when they open a new pit. A stratum of marl generally covers the keff-kil; through this they have to dig, sometimes, to the depth of from eight to twelve fathoms. The layer of keff-kil seldom exceeds twenty-eight inches in thickness, and, beneath it, the marl occurs as before. At present the annual exportation of this mineral from the whole peninsula does not exceed two tons; the consumption of it in the Crimea is inconsiderable, although it is sold in all the markets at the low price of twenty copeeks the poud.

At the distance of about two miles from Balaclava, as we proceeded to that place, we discovered the traces of an ancient wall, extending from the mountains eastward of the harbour towards the west, and thus closing the approach to Balaclava on the land side. As it offered a clue to the discovery of the other wall mentioned by Strabo, which extended across the isthmus from the Ctenus to the Portus Symbolorum, we determined to pursue it, and continued on horseback guided by its remains—Professor Pallas choosing to follow more carefully on foot, with a mariner's compass in his hand. Presently we encountered the identical work we so much wished to find; it will serve to throw considerable light upon the topography of the minor peninsula. It meets the wall of the Portus Symbolorum at right angles, and thence extends towards Inkerman, where it joins the Ctenus. We traced it the whole way. The distance between the two ports is very erroneously stated, and exaggerated, in all our maps. It agrees precisely with Strabo's admeasurement of forty stadia, or five miles, from sea to sea. All that now remains of this wall is a bank or mound; upon this the marks and vestiges of turrets are still visible. The stones of which it consisted, have, for the most part, been carried off by the inhabitants, either to form enclosures for the shepherds, or to construct the Tartar houses. Those which remain are sufficient to prove the artificial nature of the work, as they are not natural to the soil, but foreign substances evidently brought for the purpose of fortifying the rampart. Having determined the reality and position of this wall, we resolved to lose no time in farther examination of the territory here, but ascended the steep mountains upon the coast towards the west, to visit the stupendous cape, called by the Tartars the Sacred Promontory, lying between Balaclava and the Monastery of St George. The Parthenium of Strabo was within the Heracleotic Chersonesus, as the plain text of that author undoubtedly demonstrates; and if there be a spot well calculated for the terrible rites said to have been celebrated in honour of the Taurican Diana, as well as for the consonance of its position with the distance Strabo has assigned it from the city of Chersonesus, it is the Sacred Promontory. In the perplexity necessarily arising from an endeavour to reconcile ancient and modern geography, it would be the height of presumption to speak positively with regard to any peculiar situation, concerning which we have no positive evidence; yet something, beyond mere conjecture, seems founded on the coincidence of its present name, with the pristine history of the Parthenian Promontory; and Pallas seems willing to admit their identity. The contemplation of objects described so many ages ago, and to which, in barbarous countries, we are guided solely by the text of the Greek or the Roman historian, is always attended with uncertainty; but when barbarians themselves,

unconscious of the tenor of their traditions, by their simple and uncouth narrative, confirm the observations of the classic writer, and fix the wavering fact, there seems little reason to doubt.

The Sacred Promontory is a wild and fearful scene, such as Shakspeare has described in Lear; a perpendicular and tremendous precipice, one of the loftiest in the Crimea, consisting of a mountain of marble, terminating abruptly in the sea. Towards the west it borders on a valley, in which the village of Karany is situated, now inhabited by Greeks. After we had passed it, and were within two versts of the Monastery of St George, we fancied we had found the actual face of the dæmon virgin, which Strabo describes as situated at the Parthenian promontory; for we came to the remains of an ancient structure, bearing every character of remote antiquity—the stones, of a most massive nature, being laid together without cement. Part of the pavement and walls was still visible.

Soon afterwards, we arrived for the second time at the Monastery of St George. The anniversary, mentioned by Broniovius, is still celebrated here. Some peasants brought us a few copper coins of Vladimir the Great. These are very interesting, inasmuch as they evidently refer to the era of his baptism; an event which took place near the spot. They have in front a Russian V, and for reverse a Cross; symbolical of his conversion to the Christian religion. It has been already mentioned, that he was baptised in the Crimea, and the ceremony took place, according to Herberstein, at the city of Chersonesus, called Cherson, or Corson—a name easily now confounded with Cherson on the Dnieper, an appellation bestowed by the Russians, with their usual ignorance of ancient geography, upon a modern town near the mouth of that river. About five versts from the monastery, following the coast, we came to some extensive ruins in a small wood, on the right-hand side of our road. In their present state it is impossible even to trace a plan of them; for the Tartar shepherds, in moving the stones to carry off materials of enclosure for their flocks, have confused all that remains. From hence we continued our journey towards the extreme south-western point of the Crimea, and came to a place called Alexiano's Chouter, just as it grew dark. The barking of dogs announced the comfortable assurance of human dwellings, and excited a hope of some asylum for the night, after severe fatigue. We found, however, that what we supposed to be a village consisted of four or five wretched fishing-huts. A few Greeks quartered there offered to stow us all into a hole recently dug in the earth, scarcely capable of containing three persons, the stench of which was abominable; it was, moreover, filled with sheeps' hides, swarming with vermin. Having procured a little oil in a tin pan, we made it serve us for a lamp, and, searching about, at last found a small thatched hovel, with an earthen floor, and a place to light a fire. Here, notwithstanding the great heat, we kindled some dried weeds, in order to counteract the effects of miasmata from the marshes and stagnant waters of the neighbourhood. By the light of our fire, a bed was prepared for Professor Pallas, upon a sort of shelf; this, as it supported only half his mattress, caused him to glide off as often as he fell asleep, and at last reconciled him to a quiet though more disgusting couch upon the damp and dirty floor. For our own parts, having procured some long wooden benches about eight inches wide, we contrived to balance our bodies, between sleeping and waking, in a horizontal posture, until the morning. When daylight appeared, the Professor left us to examine the Point of Phanari, or the Light Tower; and, returning before we were yet roused from our somnolency, assured us the whole of that neck of land was covered with ancient ruins. We rose with great eagerness to follow him; and, as we approached the water's edge, were immediately struck by the appearance of a very small peninsula advancing into the Bay of Phanari, entirely covered by the remains of an ancient fortress. It seemed to have been once an island connected with the main land by an artificial mole; now constituting a small isthmus. From this peninsula the shore rises, and all the land towards its utmost western extremity is elevated. Ascending the sloping eminence thus presented, upon the top of it occur the walls, streets, dilapidated buildings, and other ruins of the old Chersonesus. The appearance of oblong pavements, mouldering walls, scattered fragments of earthen vessels, broken amphoræ, tiles and bricks of aqueducts, and other indications of an ancient city, prevailed over the whole territory quite to the sea. After tracing the extent of those ruins the whole way to the Point of Phanari, we discovered on the western side of the bay of that name, upon the sea shore, close to the water's edge, and upon a very low point of land almost level with it, the remains of a building which we supposed to have served formerly as a lighthouse, and to have given the name of Phanari to the western point, as well as to the bay. An arched entrance, with two of the walls, and a square opening for a window, of very massive and solid construction, is still visible.

Fatigued by a laborious investigation of ruins, which, after all, did not gratify us by the disclosure of a single inscription, medal, or bas-relief, we hastened to enjoy the beauties of nature in the delightful valley of Tchorgona; whither the Professor conducted us to pass the night in the mansion of his friend Hablitz, whose name he has commemorated by the *salvia Hablitziana*, and whose good offices he so often and so pathetically mentions in his writings. Perhaps there is not a spot in the whole Crimea so distinguished by its natural perfections. Though comprised in a smaller scale, it far surpasses in beauty the boasted valley of Baidar. The seat of Mr Hablitz was originally the residence of a Turkish Pacha, and preserves the irregular structure and strange magnificence of Turkish architecture. It is shaded by vines, tall fruit-trees, and poplars; standing among rocks and mountains covered with woods and gardens, watered by numerous fountains. Near the house is a large ancient tower covered by a dome; this was a place of refuge for the inhabitants when the Black Sea swarmed with corsairs, who invaded the coast and ransacked the peaceful valleys of the Crimea. We found in its upper chambers a few swivels and other small pieces of artillery; yet the building itself appeared to have been erected in an age anterior to the use of gunpowder in the peninsula. The Tartars in the valley of Tchorgona are reckoned among the richest of the country. From their vicinity to Aktiar they find a ready market for the produce of their lands, carrying thither honey, wax, fruit, and corn. Their sequestered valley seemed the retreat of health and joy; not a Russian was to be seen; the pipe and tabor sounded merrily among the mountains; and these, thick set with groves, closed them in on every side. The morning after our arrival we were roused by a wild concert from the hills, of such instruments as perhaps animated the dances of uncivilised nations in the earliest periods of society. The performers were a party of tzigankies, or gipsies, who, as mendicant artificers, musicians, and astrologers, are very common over all the south of Russia. They had a wind-instrument, something like a hautboy, made of the wood of the cherry tree, and carried the large Tartar drum, noticed before as characteristic of the Cimbri in the time of Strabo.

Early in the morning of this day, Professor Pallas rode with Mr Galena, who came by appointment to Inkerman, to show him some marine plants proper in the preparation of kelp. The bad air of that place, before injurious to me, added to the fatigue he had encountered the preceding day, threw him into a violent fever; from which, however, we had the happiness to see him recover before we left the Crimea. Fevers are so general, during summer, throughout the peninsula, that it is hardly possible to avoid them. If you drink water after eating fruit, a fever follows; if you eat milk, eggs, or butter—a fever; if, during the scorching heat of the day, you indulge in the most trivial neglect of clothing—a fever; if you venture out to enjoy the delightful breezes of the evening—a fever; in short, such is the dangerous nature of the climate to strangers,

that Russia must consider the country a cemetery for the troops sent to maintain its possession. This is not the case with regard to its native inhabitants the Tartars: the precautions they use, added to long experience, ensure their safety. Upon the slightest change of weather, they are seen wrapped up in sheeps' hides, and covered by felts, nearly an inch in thickness; while their heads are swathed in numerous bandages of linen, or guarded by warm stuffed caps, fenced with wool.

The Tartar nobles of the Crimea, or Moorza, as they are called, by a name which answers to the Persian word Mirza, so common in Oriental tales, amount in number to about two hundred and fifty. Their dress is altogether Circassian; except that the cap is larger than the sort of covering worn on the head by the princes of Mount Caucasus. Their figure on horseback is in the highest degree stately; and among all the Crimean Tartars, of whatsoever rank, an elegance of manners may be remarked: this, although perhaps common to Oriental nations, affords a striking opposition to the boorish figure of a Russian. It is diverting to see them converse together: the Tartar has in common with the Russian an impetuosity and eagerness in uttering his expressions; but it is zeal very differently characterised. The Tartar may be said to exhibit all the playful flexibility and varying posture of the leopard; while the Russian, rather resembling the bear, is making an awkward parade of his paws. The dress of a Tartar nobleman displays as much taste as can be shown by a habit necessarily decorated with gold and silver lace. It is neither heavily laden with ornament, nor are the colours tawdry. They delight sometimes in strong contrast, by opposing silver lace to black velvet, for their caps; scarlet or rose-coloured silk to dark cloth, for their vest or pelisse; but in general the dress of a Tartar of distinction is remarkable for its simple elegance as well as cleanliness. Their favourite colour in cloth is drab; and the grey or white wool, for their winter-caps, is of all other ornaments most in esteem. The Russian peasant, being of a diminutive race, connected only with the Laplander, as the next link in the chain between him and the pigmy, is naturally of a lively disposition, and never completely awkward except when metamorphosed to a soldier. The moment he enters the ranks, all the brisk and cheerful expression of his countenance is gone, and he appears a chopfallen, stupid, browbeaten, sullen clown.* Their commanders answer precisely the same description, with this difference, that they are more profligate. A Russian in power, whatever be his rank, or wherever he may be placed, is still the same moral example of national character.

Upon the rocks behind the house of Mr Hablitz, we found the identical plant which Pallas distinguished by the name of his friend, *salvia Hablitziana*, growing in great abundance. Mr Hablitz first observed it on the spot whence we derived our specimens, and sent the seed to Pallas in Petersburg. The plant is, however, still uncommonly rare. It is a perennial, which may be sown in common garden soil in the open air, and increases annually in size, until it becomes a fine tall shrub of very great beauty. We afterwards brought it to the Botanic Garden in Cambridge, where it also succeeded, although it has never attained the size to which it grows in Russia.

From Tchorgona we returned again to Shulu, and from thence to Kara Ilaes, where we passed the night in the palace of a Tartar nobleman; and, being couched upon a sort of sofa called the divan, surrounding the principal apartment, were covered by bugs and fleas of the most enormous size, which came upon us like ants from an ant-hill. The next day we drove pleasantly to Akmetchet, and once more shared the comforts of the Professor's hospitable mansion; regretting only the fever with which he was afflicted in consequence of an excursion, otherwise considered by us the most agreeable journey we had ever made.

* [It is proper to mention that this description must be considered too much caricatured, since it differs not only with the accounts of other travellers, but is disproved by the achievements of the Russian soldiers.]

CHAPTER XXIII.

FROM THE CRIMEA, BY THE ISTHMUS OF PERECOP, TO NICHOLAEF.

We left Akmetchet for Koslof, on the 28th of September, in the hope of obtaining a passage to Constantinople on board a Turkish brigantine, Captain Osman Rees. By whatever port of the Russian empire our escape might be effected, we knew it would be attended with considerable hazard. We had no passport from government to that effect, and we had every reason to be convinced that none would be granted. However, after waiting many months in vain expectation of a release, from the oppressive tyranny then exercised over Englishmen by every Russian they chanced to encounter, female interest in Petersburg accomplished our delivery. A forged order from the sovereign was executed and sent to us, by means of which, in spite of the vigilance of the police, we contrived to leave the country. It is necessary to state this circumstance, lest any of those, by whom we had been so hospitably entertained, should hereafter be considered accessory to our flight. Koslof was fixed upon, as the place least liable to those researches from spies and custom-house officers, which might impede our departure; and, having crossed the steppes which led to it, we arrived there in the middle of the night. Such a tremendous storm of thunder, lightning, wind, hail, and rain, came on before we reached the place, that the horses refused to proceed, and we were compelled to halt, opposing our backs to its fury, until the violence of the tempest subsided.*

As soon as morning dawned, we had our baggage sealed at the custom-house, and agreed for our passage, at the enormous rate of two hundred and fifty roubles; this was deemed by us a moderate sum, as the original demand had been six hundred. The common rate of a passenger from Koslof to Constantinople is not more than ten; but it was evident the Turks, suspecting the nature of our situation, wished to make a booty of us. When all was settled, the inspector of the customs, to our great dismay, accompanied by several officers, came to assure us that the town would not be responsible for our safety, if we ventured to embark in the brigantine; this they described as so deeply laden, that she was already nine inches below her proper poise in the water. The captain had moreover two shallops of merchandise to take on board, and sixty-four passengers. Some Armenians had already removed their property from the vessel; and we were assured she was so old and rotten, that her seams would open if exposed to any tempestuous weather. The captain, a bearded Turk, like the mariners of his country, was a sincere predestinarian; which circumstance, added to his avarice, rendered him perfectly indifferent as to the event. As commander of the only ship in the harbour bound for Constantinople, he had been induced to stow the cargoes of two ships into his single vessel. This often happens with Turkish merchantmen in the Black Sea, and is one of the causes of the numerous disasters which befall them. To prove the extent of the risk they will adventure, we heard, upon our return to Akmetchet, that captain Rees had filled the cabin we were to have occupied with four hundred cantars of honey; and a friend of ours was offered a thousand roubles to obtain the governor's ac-

* The consequence of sleeping in this situation, exposed to the miasmata of salt-marshes, which cause a somnolency it is impossible to resist, brought on again with renovated force the quartan fever I had so long combated. Mr Cripps was also attacked, but with a different effect; a sore throat, attended by cutaneous eruptions covering his whole body, and from which he was soon relieved, was all the consequence to him of the vapours to which he had been exposed. These observations cannot be reconciled to the account Pallas afterwards published of the exhalations from the stagnant lakes near Koslof; as he says, they contribute greatly to the salubrity of the town, and that intermitting fevers are less frequent there than at other places.

quiescence in an additional contraband cargo, of two thousand bulls' hides, the exportation of which, at that time, was strictly prohibited.

Koslof takes its name from a Tartar compound *Güs l' ove*, the origin of which cannot be distinctly ascertained. *Güs* signifies an eye, and *ove* a hut. The Russians, with their usual ignorance of ancient geography, bestowed upon it the name of Eupatorium. It has been already shown that Eupatorium stood in the Minor Peninsula of the Heracleotæ, near the city of Chersonesus. As to the present state of the place itself, it is one of those wretched remnants of the once flourishing commercial towns of the Crimea, which exemplify the effects of Russian dominion. Its trade is annihilated; its houses in ruins; its streets desolate; the splendid mosques by which it was adorned are unroofed, and their minarets thrown down; its original inhabitants are either banished or murdered; all that we found remaining, were a few sneaking officers of the police and customs, with here and there a solitary Turk or Tartar, smoking among the ruins, and sighing over the devastation he beheld. Its commerce was once of very considerable importance. Its port contained fifty vessels at a time; which number was great, considering that the other ports of the Crimea had each their portion. We found that number reduced to one accidental rotten brigantine, the precarious speculation of a few poor Turkish mariners, who, although common sailors on board, shared equally with the captain the profit of the voyage. In better times, Koslof, from her crowded shores, exported wool, butter, hides, fur, and corn. The corn has now risen to such a price that it is no longer an export; the wool, fur, and hides, are prohibited. In short, as a commercial town, it exists no longer. The only ship which had left the port previous to our arrival, sailed with a determination to return no more; not only on account of the length of time which had been required in procuring a cargo, but from the bribery and corruption it was necessary to support and countenance in order to get away.

In returning to Akmetchet, we stopped to water our horses in the steppes, where the dwellings were entirely subterranean. Not a house was to be seen; but there were some holes, as entrances, in the ground, through one of which we descended to a cave, rendered almost suffocating by the heat of a stove for dressing the victuals of its poor owners. The walls, floor, and roof, were all of the natural soil. If such retreats were the original abodes of mankind, they borrowed the art of constructing habitations from badgers, foxes, and rabbits. At present, such dwellings are principally, if not solely, tenanted by shepherds of the Crimea, who dig them to serve as places of residence during winter.

Having failed in the object of our journey to Koslof, we prepared to leave the peninsula by another route, and attempt a journey by land to Constantinople. For this purpose we dispatched letters to our ambassador at the Porte, requesting an escort of janissaries to meet us at Yassy. The evening before we took our final leave of Akmetchet, was enlivened by the company and conversation of Marshal Biberstein, a literary friend of the Professor's, who had been recently travelling along the Volga, the shores of the Caspian, and in Caucasus. He was two years an exile in the Isle of Taman, where he had amused himself with the study of botany, and the antiquities of the country. He brought several new plants to the Professor; and confirmed the observations we had before made upon the Cimmerian Bosporus. In answer to our inquiries concerning the relative height of the Caucasian chain of mountains, he said, that the Alps are nowhere so elevated: and mentioned Mount Chat as higher than Mont Blanc. Being questioned about the tribe of the Turcomanni, now called by the Tartars Turkmen, and Truckmenzi, he described them as a race of very rich nomades, still numerous in the steppes near Astrachan; remarkable for the beauty of their persons, as well as for their patient endurance of the unjust taxes and heavy exactions by which the neighbouring governors oppress them.

The equinox brought with it a series of tempestuous weather, which continued until the 10th of October. On that day, the violence of the wind having subsided, and a second summer ensuing, we took final leave of our friends; quitting for ever their hospitable society. Professor Pallas set out for his vineyards at Sudack, and we took our route across the steppes towards Perecop. The late storms had destroyed even the small produce of the vines upon the coast, which the locusts had spared. Some fruit trees put forth a premature blossom; and we found the plains covered with the gaudy and beautiful flowers of the autumnal crocus. Their bulbs were very deep in the soil, which consists of a rich black vegetable earth. The Taurican chain of mountains, with the summit of Tchetirdagh towering above the rest, appeared very conspicuous towards the south. Towards the north, the whole country exhibited a boundless flat plain, across which caravans passing, laden with water-melons, cucumbers, cabbages, and other vegetables, were, with the exception of ancient tumuli, almost the only objects we encountered. Some of the vehicles were drawn by camels, and were principally destined for Koslof. We travelled all night; and in the morning at sunrise were roused by our interpreter, a Greek, who begged we would observe an animal half flying and half running among the herbs. It was a jerboa, the quadruped already noticed in a former chapter. We caught it with some difficulty, and should not have succeeded, but for the cracking of a large whip, the noise of which terrified it so much that it lost all recollection of its burrow. Its leaps were extraordinary for so small an animal; sometimes to the distance of six or eight yards, but in no determinate direction; it bounded backwards and forwards, without ever quitting the vicinity of the place where it was found. The most singular circumstance in its nature is the power it possesses of altering its course when in the air. It first leaps perpendicularly from the ground to the height of four feet or more; and then, by a motion of its tail, with a clicking noise, strikes off in whatever direction it chooses.

By the appearance which Perecop makes in all the maps, it might be expected that a tolerable fortress would be found there to guard the passage of the isthmus. Yet nothing more wretched can be imagined than the hamlet, which supplies a few worn-out invalids with quarters. A very inconsiderable rampart extends from sea to sea, the distance across the isthmus in the narrowest part scarcely exceeding five miles; the water being visible from the middle of the passage on either side. On the north side of this rampart is a fosse twelve fathoms wide, and twenty-five feet deep; but it is dry, and destitute of any means by which it may be inundated. The rest of the fortification, which was originally a Turkish work, is in a state of neglect and ruin. The air of the place is very bad; in consequence of which, the inhabitants of the neighbouring hamlets, who are chiefly disbanded soldiers, suffer materially from intermitting fevers. Strabo, with that extraordinary accuracy which characterises every page of his writings that relate to the Crimea, states the breadth of the isthmus as equal to forty stadia; and it is, as has been stated, rather more than five miles, which would exactly accord with his description. That the waters of the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof do annually sustain a certain diminution, may be proved by the phenomena observable on all the north-western shores: it is therefore natural to conclude the isthmus has increased proportionally since the time in which Strabo wrote. By reference to documents of yet higher antiquity, it might be made to appear that the peninsula itself was once an island; and it is to such historical passages, in the writings of the ancients, that Pliny refers in his account of the Chersonesus, by the following passage:—"From Carcinites begins Taurica, once surrounded by the sea, which covered all the champaign part of it." The constant draining of the great eastern flood at length left visible the vast calcareous deposit, accumulated during so many ages, and which now constitutes those extensive plains in the south of Russia, joined by the isthmus of Perecop to the steppes of the Crimea. If we suppose the

waters of the Black Sea to be restored only to the level of those layers of marine shells which may be traced all the way from the mouths of the Dnieper to those of the Don, still retaining their perfect forms, and modified only by a mineral process, the Crimea will appear again an island, visible only amidst an expanse of ocean, by those loftier masses of calcareous rocks upon its southern coast.

Throughout the whole summer, Perecop is a scene of great bustle and commerce. The shores, the isthmus, and all the neighbouring steppes, are covered with caravans coming for salt, consisting of waggons drawn sometimes by camels, but generally by white oxen, from two to six in each vehicle. Their freight is so easily obtained, that they have only to drive the waggons axle-deep into the shallow water on the eastern side of the isthmus, and load as fast as they please; the salt lying like sand. The sight of so many hundred waggons, by fifties at a time in the water, is very striking; they appear like fleets of small boats floating upon the surface of the waves. The driver of each waggon pays a tax of ten roubles to the crown. There are various reservoirs of salt in the Crimea; but those of Perecop, used from time immemorial, are the most abundant, and they are considered as inexhaustible. Taurica was the emporium of this commodity in the earliest periods of history; and it was then sent, as it is now, by the Black Sea to Constantinople, and to the Archipelago; by land to Poland, and over all Russia, to Moscow, to Petersburg, and even to Riga. The oxen, after their long journey, are sometimes sold with the cargoes they have brought, and sometimes they return again the whole of that immense distance with other merchandise. The caravans halt every evening at sunset, when their drivers turn the oxen loose to graze, and lie down themselves in the open air to pass the night upon the steppe. We noticed one, among many groups of this kind, which was remarkably interesting; because it possessed the novelty of a female, whose features we were allowed to contemplate. She was preparing with her child to pass the night upon the grass of the steppe, preferring the canopy of heaven to that of the *madjar*.* Her companions were of a wild but equivocal race, in which the Tartar features appeared to predominate, and were clothed in goat-skins. Nothing can be more striking than the spectacle afforded by those immense caravans slowly advancing, each in one direct line, by hundreds at a time, and presenting a picture of the internal commerce carried on by Russia throughout all parts of her vast empire.

Another singular appearance at Perecop is afforded by the concourse of Nagay Tartars frequenting the market for the sale of water-melons; a kind of fruit seen there of extraordinary size and perfection. They are a very different people from the Tartars of the Crimea, and may be instantly distinguished by their diminutive form, and the dark copper colour of their complexion, which is sometimes almost black. They have a very remarkable resemblance to the Laplanders, although their dress and manner has a more savage character. It is probable the Nagay Tartar and the Laplander were originally of the same colony, difficult as it now is to deduce the circumstances of their origin. The Crimean Tartar is a person of much more stately demeanour, farther advanced in civilisation, of a better figure, and often very engaging manners. A number of them annually leave the Crimea on a pilgrimage to Mecca and Medina; so that continual intercourse with other nations has contributed to their superior station in the general scale of society. A Crimean Tartar must either make this journey himself, once in his life, or send his representative, and defray his expenses. Those pilgrims go first to Constantinople, where the main body divides; a part choosing the shortest route to Alexandria, where they join the Egyptian caravan, and the rest proceeding by the way of Syria to Damascus, &c. The first route is liable to the greater inconvenience, as they sometimes suffer two or three days on their march from the want of water. The Syrian route is therefore generally preferred; in their way they visit Jerusalem, the river Jordan, the Dead Sea, and other parts of the Holy Land; the Mahometans entertaining great veneration for the memory of Christ, whom they regard as a prophet, although not the son of God. Persons who have completed this pilgrimage are dignified on their return with the title of *hadjy*.

In the isthmus we observed again the disgusting presence of the sort of toad, *rana variabilis*, which has been before noticed, and which swarms in all the territory bordering on the Sivash, or Putrid Sea, to the east of the peninsula. They crawl even to the tops of the hills near the Straits of Taman, and generally indicate unwholesome air; for wherever the air is better than usual in the Crimea, this animal is proportionally rare. It buries itself in the earth, forming little holes, like the jerboa or rabbit.*

In the departure from Perecop, as well as in the approach to it, the sea is visible on both sides of the isthmus. A canal might easily be formed so as to insulate the Crimea, and render it very difficult of approach on the Russian side. We took a direction towards the Dnieper, and, as before, over plains exhibiting no particular trace in the soil which might be called a road. Our different journeys in Taurica had made the whole peninsula familiar to our recollection; and we were amused by reflecting on the probable surprise a traveller would experience, who, after reading the inflated descriptions which have been published of its scenery, should pass the Isthmus of Perecop, and journey during a day and a half without seeing any other symptoms of a habitable country, or any object throughout a flat and boundless desert, except the miserable peasants placed at the different relays to supply horses for the post. So narrow is the tract of cultivated land upon the southern coast, that it may be compared to an edging of lace upon the lower rim of a large apron. Without the isthmus, the plains were covered by the caravans of salt, and every route filled by them. For the rest, the appearance of the country was precisely the same as in the north of the Crimea. The roads were as usual excellent; and throughout all the south of Russia, excepting after heavy rain, the traveller may proceed with a degree of speed and facility unknown in any other country. A journey from Moscow to Zaritzin, Astrachan, and from thence, along the whole Caucasian line to the Straits of Taman, might be considered a mere summer excursion, and for the most part easier and pleasanter than an expedition through any part of Germany. The horses are always ready, of a superior quality; and the turf over which the roads lie, quite without parallel. The still great expedition that may be used in the same country, in winter, by travelling upon sledges, is already well known.

Those roads which lead from the Crimea towards the north of Russia, are supposed to be infested with bands of desperate robbers, who inhabit the extensive deserts north of that peninsula. Stories of this kind rarely

* The Tartar waggon, called *madjar*, or *maggiar*, is always of the same form and materials; a long, narrow vehicle, supported by four wooden wheels, without any iron attire.

* [In taking leave of the Crimea with the learned author, it may be expedient to say a few words upon its present state. Previous to its conquest by Russia, the population was estimated at more than half a million; but so great was the emigration consequent upon that event, that in 1793 the number of inhabitants had dwindled to 200,000. At present it does not exceed 300,000, three-fourths of whom are Tartars. Since the time of Alexander, the rule of Russia has been more mild and equitable towards its Crimean subjects, who are now contented and happy. They enjoy privileges denied to the Russians themselves; and that excellent policy of Russia, pursued under all circumstances, of not interfering with the religious faith of its newly-acquired subjects, has had its invariable effect in the Crimea, as elsewhere, of greatly reconciling the inhabitants to the loss of independence. The only evils of which they complain are those they share in common with all the millions in the Russian empire, namely, the corrupt administration of justice, joined to the peculations, extortion, and harassing conduct of the petty functionaries of the government departments. These are enormities inherent in the Russian administration, which will be remedied only by the overthrow of the empire, or the re-organisation of its system of ruin.]

amount to more than idle reports: if credit were given to all that is related of the danger of journeying by this route, it would be madness to risk the attempt; but few instances have occurred, well attested, of any interruption or hazard whatsoever. Perhaps, before the Crimea was subject to Russia, there was more real foundation for alarm, because the country in which the banditti are said to dwell, then constituted the frontier of Little Tartary; and, in all parts of the globe, frontiers are most liable to evils of this description, from the facility of escape which they offer to the plunderer or the assassin. From my own experience in almost every part of Europe, after all the tales which I have heard of the danger which attends travelling in this or that country, I know no place so full of peril as the environs of London; where many persons, who traverse the roads at all hours of the day and night with perfect indifference, would shrink from the thoughts of an expedition across the deserts of Nagay, or the territory of the Don Cossacks. The Nagay Tartars, from their nomado life, are a wilder and more savage looking people than those of the Crimea, being altogether as unsettled and as barbarous as the Calmucks: but their occupations are pastoral; and a pastoral state of society is seldom characterised by cruelty or acts of open violence. Yet, while it is asserted that their whole attention seems given to the care of their flocks and herds, it must be acknowledged some facts are related, respecting the road from Moscow to Perecop, which are too well authenticated to admit any dispute. About four years before we left the Crimea, the lady of Admiral Mordvinof, who was travelling that way, attended by a proper escort especially provided to secure her from danger, and a very numerous suite of domestics, was stopped by a formidable party of banditti, who plundered her equipage of every thing they considered worth taking away. General Michelson, governor-general of the Crimea, showed to me at Akmetchet a dreadful weapon which had been seized in the hands of a robber, who was discovered lurking even in that neighbourhood. It consisted of a cannon-ball, a two-pounder, slung at the extremity of a leather thong, which had a handle like that of a whip, by which it might be hurled with prodigious force. But, after all, it may be proved that none of these deeds are the work of Tartars. The particular district said to be most dangerous in all the road from Moscow to Perecop, is that which lies between Kremenchük and Ekaterinoslaf, upon the frontiers of Poland. The robbers hitherto taken were invariably from that neighbourhood, and were inhabitants of the Tcherno Laës, or Black Forest, generally from the village of Zimkoia; they are the remnant of the Zaporogztsi, originally deserters and vagabonds from all nations—a tribe from which Potemkin selected those brave Cossacks, now known under the appellation of Tchernomorski, who inhabit Kuban Tartary. Many of them are Polish Jews; and among those, who were afterwards apprehended, of the party which had robbed Admiral Mordvinof's lady, were certain Jews of this description. The house of Admiral Mordvinof, situated among the mountains of the Crimea, near Sudack, was also attacked during the time we resided at Akmetchet; but, as the admiral himself assured me, evidently with no other view than to carry off some of his poultry. The admiral had been engaged in frequent litigations with the Tartars concerning the limits of his estate; and as this conduct rendered him unpopular among them, it perhaps exposed him to depredations he would not otherwise have encountered. Having thus related a few facts which came to my knowledge, affecting the character of the Tartars, and the danger of their country, it may be amusing to add some examples of the stories current in the country; these, though perhaps less authentic, are implicitly believed by Russians and other strangers, and constitute a favourite topic of conversation. The first was related to me by a general officer in the Russian service; the second I heard upon the road.

The chief of a very desperate gang of banditti, who had amassed considerable wealth, was taken by a soldier, and conducted to the governor of the province at Ekaterinoslaf. Great reward had been offered for the person of this man, and it was supposed he would of course be immediately *knouted*. To the astonishment of the soldier, who had been the means of his apprehension, a few days only had elapsed, when he received a visit from the robber; who had been able to pay the governor a bribe sufficient to procure his release, in consequence of which he had been liberated from confinement. "You have caught me," said he, addressing the soldier, "this time; but before you set out upon another expedition in search of me, I will accommodate you with a pair of *red boots** for the journey." With this terrible threat he made his escape, and no further inquiry on the part of the police was made after him. The undaunted soldier, finding the little confidence that could be placed in his commander, determined to take the administration of justice into his own hands, and once more adventured in pursuit of the robber, whose flight had spread terror through the country. After an undertaking full of danger, he found him in one of the little subterranean huts in the midst of the steppes; and entering with his pistols in his hand, "You promised me," said he, "a pair of red boots; I am come to be measured for them!" With these words he discharged one of his pistols, and, killing the robber on the spot, returned to his quarters. The picture this offers of the corruption prevailing among governors and officers of justice in Russia, is correct; as for the story itself, it may be also true: it is given as it was received, from those who considered its veracity indisputable.

The next anecdote relates to a circumstance which happened in the road between Kremenchük and Ekaterinoslaf, and affords an instance of the remarkable intrepidity in one of the *feldlégers*, or couriers of the crown. A person of this description was journeying from Cherson to Kremenchük, by a route much infested with banditti. He was cautioned against taking a particular road, on account of the numerous robberies and murders which had lately taken place; and the more so in consequence of a report, that the robbers were actually there encamped, plundering all who attempted to pass. Orders had been given, that, wherever these banditti were found, they should be shot without trial. The courier, however, proceeded on his journey in a *pavosky*,† and presently observed four men hastily entering a tent near the road. Almost at the same instant the driver of the pavosky declared there was a fifth concealed in a ditch by which they passed; but as it was dusky, and the object not clearly discerned, they both left the pavosky to examine it. To their surprise and horror, they found the body of a man, who had been murdered, still warm. A light appeared within the tent, and the courier, desiring the postilion to remain quiet with the vehicle, walked boldly towards it. As soon as he entered, he asked the men within, if he might be allowed a glass of brandy? Being answered in the affirmative, he added, "Stay a little; I will just step to the pavosky and bring something for us to eat; you shall find the drink." It was now quite dark, and the courier, who had well observed the number and disposition of the men within the tent, returned to the pavosky; when, having armed the postilion and himself by means of a blunderbuss, two pistols, and a sabre, he took the bleeding carcase on his shoulders, and advanced once more towards the tent. The unsuspecting robbers had seated themselves round the fire, with their pipes lighted, and their arms suspended above their heads. The courier, in the very instant that he entered, cast the dead body into the midst of them, exclaiming, "There's the sort of food for your palates!" and, before a moment was allowed them to recover from the surprise into which this had thrown them, a discharge from the

* To give a man a pair of *red boots*, according to the saying of the Tartars, is to cut the skin round the upper part of his legs, and then cause it to be torn off by the feet. This species of torture the banditti are said to practise as an act of revenge; in the same manner the Americans scalp the heads of their enemies.

† A small four-wheeled waggon, used, during summer, as a substitute for the kibitka.

blunderbuss killed two of the four; a third received a pistol-shot, with a cut from the sabre, but survived his wounds, and was taken bound to Kremenchük, where he suffered the knout. The fourth made his escape. Of such a nature are the tales which a traveller in this country may expect to hear continually related by new settlers in the Crimea and the Ukraine. I cannot give much credit to any of them; and must confess I should not be surprised to hear the same stories repeated in other countries, as having happened wherever banditti are supposed to infest the public roads.

Being unacquainted with the topography of Biroslaf, and having no map in which it was laid down, I find it impossible to give an accurate description of the different streams and lakes of water which we passed in order to reach that place. The inhabitants were even more ignorant than myself. Before we arrived, we traversed an extensive tract of sand apparently insulated; this, we were told, was often inundated, and boats were then stationed to conduct travellers. Having crossed this sandy district, we passed the Dnieper by a ferry, and ascended its steep occidental banks to the town. The conveyance of caravans upon the sands I have mentioned, was effected with great difficulty; each waggon requiring no less a number of oxen than eight or twelve, and even these seemed hardly adequate to the immense labour of the draft. All the way from Perecop to Biroslaf, the line of caravans continued almost without intermission. The immense concourse of waggons, the bellowing of the oxen, the bawling and grotesque appearance of the drivers, and the crowd of persons in the habits of many different nations, waiting a passage across the water, offered one of those singular scenes to which in other countries there is nothing similar, and convey at the same time notions of the internal commerce of Russia, which otherwise might scarcely be credited.

Biroslaf, upon the western side of the Dnieper, is a miserable looking place, and owes its support entirely to the passage of the salt-caravans from the Crimea. It might be suspected, that its situation upon so considerable a river, affording it an intercourse with Kiof and Cherson, would entitle it to higher consideration; but we could obtain no information worth repeating upon the existence of any such commerce. We observed the Polish costume very prevalent here; the men in every respect resembling the Cossacks of the Don. The appearance of boatmen, stalking in the mud with boots of Morocco leather, was quite new to us; although the Tartars of the Crimea frequently appear with the same covering upon their feet.

To describe the road between Biroslaf and Cherson, would put the reader's patience to a very unnecessary trial, by a repetition of observations already perhaps too often made; and would give to these pages the monotonous character of the steppes over which it was made. Before we reached the last post, we passed a considerable surface of stagnant water, whether derived from the Dnieper or not we could not then learn, neither would any map we carried with us inform us. The very sight of it was sufficient to convince us of the dangerous nature of the situation; and our servant was attacked by a violent fever in consequence of the unwholesome air. We preserved ourselves by smoking; but this will not always serve as a preventative.

However unexpected an obligation might be, conferred upon English travellers by any of the imperial family of Russia, we were certainly indebted to the Grand Duke Constantine for the excellent accommodations we found in Cherson; although we are ready to acquit his highness of any intention favourable to our reception there, or any where else. Arriving in the night, we were conducted to an inn, where to our astonishment we beheld a degree of cleanliness, and a display of luxury, wholly unaccountable. The master of the house, an Italian, observing the surprise we manifested, told us that his rooms were prepared for a masquerade, for the celebration of which he expected orders upon the arrival of his highness; notwithstanding the alarm which the mere report of his coming had spread throughout the country. The arrival of a Tiberius, a Nero, or any other more detestable tyrant of ancient Rome, never diffused more general panic than was felt in Cherson at this time.

Cherson, founded in 1778, was formerly a town of much more importance than it is now. Potemkin bestowed upon it many instances of patronage, and was partial to the place. Its fortress and arsenal were erected by him. We found its commerce so completely annihilated, that its merchants were either bankrupts, or were preparing to leave the town, and establish themselves elsewhere. They complained of being abandoned by the emperor, who refused to grant them any support or privilege. Without the smallest inclination to write an apology for the Emperor Paul, I cannot possibly admit that Cherson, by any grant of the Crown, could become a great commercial establishment; and it is quite incomprehensible how such a notion was ever adopted. The mouth of the Dnieper is extremely difficult to navigate; sometimes north-east winds leave it full of shallows, and, where there happens at any time to be a channel for vessels, it has not a greater depth of water than five feet; the entrance is at the same time excessively narrow. The sands are continually shifting, which renders the place so dangerous, that ships are rarely seen in the harbour. But the last blow to the commerce of Cherson was given by the war of Russia with France. Before that event, the exportation of corn, of hemp, and canvass, had placed the town upon a scale of some consideration. All the ports of Russia in the Black Sea were more or less affected by the same cause; and particularly Taganrock, which had received a very serious check in consequence of the state of affairs with France.*

The architecture visible in the buildings of the fortress showed a good taste; the stone used for their construction resembled that porous, though durable limestone, which the first Grecian colonies in Italy employed in erecting the temples of Pæstum; but the Russians had whitewashed every thing, and by that means had given to their works the meanness of plaster. One of the first things we asked to see was the tomb of Potemkin. All Europe has heard that he was buried in Cherson, and a magnificent sepulchre might naturally be expected for a person so renowned. The reader will imagine our surprise, when, in answer to our inquiries concerning his remains, we were told that no one knew what was become of them. Potemkin, the illustrious, the powerful, of all the princes that ever lived the most princely, of all imperial favourites the most favoured, had not a spot which might be called his grave. He, who not only governed all Russia, but even made the haughty Catherine his suppliant, had not the distinction possessed by the lowest and the poorest of the human race. The particulars respecting the ultimate disposal of his body, as they were communicated to me upon the spot by the most credible testimony, merit a cursory detail.

The corpse, soon after his death,† was brought to Cherson, and placed beneath a dome of the small church belonging to the fortress, opposite to the altar. After the usual ceremony of interment, the vault was merely covered, by restoring to their former situation the planks of wood which constituted the floor of the building. Many of the inhabitants of Cherson, as well as English officers in the Russian service, who lived in its neighbourhood, had seen the coffin, which was extremely ordinary; and the practice of showing it to strangers prevailed for some years after Potemkin's decease. The Empress Catherine either had, or pretended to have, an intention of erecting a superb monument to his memory; whether at Cherson or elsewhere, is unknown. Her sudden death is believed to have prevented

* [Kherson has of late years somewhat revived, and at present contains about 15,000 inhabitants.]

† Potemkin died October 15, 1791, aged fifty-two, during a journey from Yassy to Nicholaef; and *actually expired in a ditch*, near the former place, in which the attendants placed him, that he might recline against its sloping side—being taken from the carriage for air.

the completion of this design. The most extraordinary part of the story remains now to be related: the coffin itself has disappeared. Instead of any answer to the various inquiries we made concerning it, we were cautioned to be silent. "No one," said a countryman of ours living in the place, "dares mention the name of Potemkin!" At last we received intelligence that the *verger* could satisfy our curiosity, if we would venture to ask him. We soon found the means of encouraging a little communication on his part; and were then told, that the body, by the emperor's command, had been taken up and thrown into the ditch of the fortress. The orders received were, to take up the body of Potemkin, and cast it into the first hole that might be found. These orders were implicitly obeyed. A hole was dug in the fosse, into which he was thrown with as little ceremony as a dead dog; but as this procedure took place in the night, very few were informed of the fate of the body. An eye-witness assured me that the coffin no longer existed in the vault where it was originally placed; and the verger was actually proceeding to point out the place where the body was abandoned, when the bishop himself happening to arrive, took away my guide; and, with menaces which were but too likely to be fulfilled, prevented our being more fully informed concerning the obloquy which at present involves the remains of Potemkin.* Let me now therefore direct the reader's attention to a more interesting subject; to a narrative of the last days, the death, and burial of the benevolent Howard, who, with a character forcibly opposed to that of Potemkin, also terminated a glorious career at Cherson. Mysterious Providence, by events always remote from human foresight, had wonderfully destined, that these two men, celebrated in their lives by the most contrasted deeds, should be interred nearly upon the same spot. It is not within the reach of possibility to bring together, side by side, two individuals more remarkably characterised by every opposite qualification; as if the hand of destiny had directed two persons, in whom were exemplified the extremes of vice and virtue, to one common spot, in order that the contrast might remain a lesson for mankind: Potemkin, bloated and pampered by every vice, after a path through life stained with blood and crimes, at last the victim of his own selfish excesses—Howard, a voluntary exile, enduring the severest privations for the benefit of his fellow-creatures, and labouring, even to his latest breath, in the exercise of every social virtue.

The particulars of Mr Howard's death were communicated to me by his two friends, Admiral Mordvinof, then chief admiral of the Black Sea fleet, and Admiral Priestman, an English officer in the Russian service; both of whom were eye-witnesses of his last moments. He had been entreated to visit a lady about twenty-four miles from Cherson, who was dangerously ill. Mr Howard objected, alleging that he acted only as physician to the poor; but, hearing of her imminent danger, he afterwards yielded to the persuasion of Admiral Mordvinof, and went to see her. After having prescribed that which he deemed proper to be administered, he returned, leaving directions with her family to send for him again if she got better; but adding, that if, as he much feared, she should prove worse, it would be to no purpose. Some time after his return to Cherson, a letter arrived, stating that the lady was better, and begging that he would come without loss of time. When he examined the date, he perceived that the letter, by some unaccountable delay, had been eight days in getting to his hands. Upon this, he resolved to go with all possible expedition. The weather was extremely tempestuous and very cold, it being late in the year, and the rain fell in torrents. In his impatience to set out, a conveyance not being immediately ready, he mounted an old dray horse, used in Admiral Mordvinof's family to carry water, and thus proceeded to visit his patient. Upon his arrival, he found the lady dying; this, added to the fatigue of the journey, affected him so much, that it brought on a fever. His clothes, at the same time, had been wet through; but he attributed his fever entirely to another cause. Having administered something to his patient to excite perspiration, as soon as the symptoms of it appeared he put his hand beneath the bed-clothes to feel her pulse, that she might not be chilled by removing them, and believed that her fever was thus communicated to him. After this painful journey, Mr Howard returned to Cherson, and the lady died.

It had been almost his daily custom, at a certain hour, to visit Admiral Priestman; when, with his usual attention to regularity, he would place his watch on the table, and pass exactly an hour with him in conversation. The admiral, finding that he failed in his usual visits, went to see him, and found him weak and ill, sitting before a stove in his bed-room. Having inquired after his health, Mr Howard replied, that his end was approaching very fast; that he had several things to say to his friend, and thanked him for having called. The admiral, finding him in such a melancholy mood, endeavoured to turn the conversation, imagining the whole might be merely the result of low spirits; but Mr Howard soon assured him it was otherwise, and added, "Priestman, you style this a very dull conversation, and endeavour to divert my mind from dwelling upon death, but I entertain very different sentiments. Death has no terrors for me: it is an event I always looked to with cheerfulness, if not with pleasure; and be assured, the subject of it is to me more grateful than any other. I am well aware I have but a short time to live; my mode of life has rendered it impossible that I should get rid of this fever. If I had lived as you do, eating heartily of animal food, and drinking wine, I might, perhaps, by diminishing my diet, be able to subdue it. But how can such a man as I am lower his diet, who has been accustomed for years to exist on vegetables and water, a little bread and a little tea? I have no method of lowering my nourishment, and therefore I must die. It is such jolly fellows as you, Priestman, who get over these fevers." Then, turning the subject, he spoke of his funeral; and cheerfully gave directions concerning the manner in which he would be buried. "There is a spot," said he, "near the village of Dauphigny, which would suit me nicely: you know it well, for I have often said I should like to be buried there; and let me beg of you, as you value your old friend, not to suffer any pomp to be used at my funeral, nor any monument, or monumental inscription whatsoever, to mark where I am laid; but lay me quietly in the earth, place a sun-dial over my grave, and let me be forgotten." Having given these directions, he was very earnest in soliciting that Admiral Priestman would lose no time in securing the object of his wishes, but go immediately, and settle with the owner of the land for the place of his interment, and prepare every thing for his burial.

The admiral left him upon his melancholy errand, fearing, at the same time, as he himself informed me, that the people would believe him crazy, to solicit a burying-ground for a man who was then living, and whom no person yet knew to be indisposed. However, he accomplished Mr Howard's wishes, and returned to him with the intelligence: at this his countenance brightened, a gleam of evident satisfaction came over his face, and he prepared to go to bed. Soon after, he made his will; leaving as his executor a trusty follower, who had lived with him more in the capacity of a friend than of a servant, and whom he charged with the commission of bearing his will to England. It was not until after he had finished his will, that any symptoms of delirium appeared. Admiral Priestman, who had left him for a short time, returned, and found him sitting up in his bed, adding what he believed to be a codicil to his will; but this consisted of several unconnected words, the chief part of which were illegible, and all without any meaning. This strange composition he desired Admiral Priestman to witness and sign, and, in order to please him, the admiral consented, but wrote his name,

* [Count Vorontzof, governor-general of New Russia, having become allied by marriage to the relations of Potemkin, obtained leave from Alexander to erect a monument to his memory from funds to be raised by subscription.—MORTON'S *Odessa*, p. 359.]

as he bluntly said, in Russian characters, lest any of his friends in England, reading his signature to such a codicil, should think he was also delirious. After Mr Howard had made what he conceived to be an addition to his will, he became more composed. A letter was brought to him from England, containing intelligence of the improved state of his son's health; stating the manner in which he passed his time in the country, and giving great reason to hope that he would recover from the disorder (insanity) with which he was afflicted. His servant read this letter aloud; and when he had concluded, Mr Howard turned his head towards him, saying, "Is not this comfort for a dying father?" He expressed great repugnance against being buried according to the rites of the Greek church; and begging Admiral Priestman to prevent any interference with his interment on the part of the Russian priests, made him also promise, that he would read the service of the church of England over his grave, and bury him in all respects according to the forms of his country. Soon after this last request, he ceased to speak. Admiral Mordvinof came in, and found him dying very fast. They had in vain besought him to allow a physician to be sent for; but Admiral Mordvinof renewing this solicitation with great earnestness, Mr Howard assented by nodding his head. The physician came, but was too late to be of any service. A rattling in the throat had commenced; and the physician administered what is called the *musk draught*, a medicine used only in Russia in the last extremity. It was given to the patient by Admiral Mordvinof, who prevailed on him to swallow a little; but he endeavoured to avoid the rest, and gave evident signs of disapprobation. He was then entirely given over, and shortly after breathed his last.

He had always refused to allow any portrait of himself to be made; but after his death Admiral Mordvinof caused a plaster mould to be formed upon his face, which was sent to Mr Wilberforce. A cast from this mould was in the admiral's possession when we were in Cherson, and presented a very striking resemblance of his features.

He was buried near the village of Dauphigny, about five versts from Cherson, on the road to Nicholaef, in the spot he had himself chosen; and his friend, Admiral Priestman, read the English burial service, according to his desire. The rest of his wishes were not exactly fulfilled; for the concourse of spectators was immense, and the order of his funeral was more magnificent than would have met with his approbation.

The distance from Cherson to Nicholaef is only sixty-two versts, or rather more than forty-one miles. At the distance of five versts from the former place, the road passes close to the tomb of Howard. It may be supposed we did not halt with indifference to view the hallowed spot. "To abstract the mind from all local emotion would be impossible if it were endeavoured, and it would be foolish if it were possible. Whatever withdraws us from the power of our senses; whatever makes the past, the distant, or the future, predominate over the present, advances us in the dignity of thinking beings. Far be from me, and from my friends, that frigid philosophy which might conduct us indifferent or unmoved over any ground that has been dignified by wisdom, bravery, or virtue." So spake the sage, in words never to be forgotten; unenvied be the man who has not felt their force; lamented he who does not know their author!

The town of Nicholaef, covering a great extent of territory, with numerous buildings, intersected by wide streets, makes a splendid and very considerable appearance. The whole of it is of recent date. The river Bog, by which it stands, flows quite round the place, in a broad and ample channel. Ships of the line cannot come close to the buildings on account of a sand-bank; but brigs and other small vessels are carried over by the floating machines called *camels*, in use at Petersburg and many other parts of Russia. The arsenals, storehouses, and other works, are so extensive, that it is evident great efforts have been made to render this place an emporium of high importance for the Russian navy. The admiral-in-chief of the Black Sea, as well as the vice-admirals, reside here; and an office is established for regulating all marine affairs belonging to the three ports, Cherson, Odessa, and Nicholaef. The public buildings and palaces of the admirals are very stately; and, considering the short time that has elapsed since Nicholaef was a miserable village, the progress made in the place is surprising. There is no town to compare with it in all the south of Russia, nor any in the empire, excepting Moscow and Petersburg.* Its elevated situation; the magnificence of its river; the regularity that has been observed in laying out the streets, and their extraordinary breadth; the magnificence and number of the public works, with the flourishing state of its population—place it very high in the small catalogue of Russian towns. English officers, and English engineers, with other foreigners in the Russian service, residing here, have introduced habits of urbanity and cleanliness; and have served to correct, by the force of example, the barbarity of the native inhabitants.

CHAPTER XXIV.

FROM NICHOLAEF TO ODESSA.

Admiral Vondazen invited us to dinner; and, hearing of our intention to undertake a journey by land to Constantinople, offered us permission to sail in a packet belonging to the crown from Odessa. This we readily accepted; but the plan did not suit the views of the Vice-Admiral Count Voinovick, a Sclavonian, who had other intentions with regard to that vessel, and by whose subsequent intrigues we were prevented from using it. Admiral Priestman, who was then at Nicholaef, acted towards us with unbounded hospitality and friendship. It was from that officer I principally received the particulars of Mr Howard's death, already communicated. In the short acquaintance we had formed with him, the blunt sincerity of his character, his openness and benevolence of heart, had endeared him to us so much, that we deeply lamented the loss of his society. That so distinguished a naval officer should be in the service of our enemies, merely from want of employment at home, cannot be too much regretted. Great Britain has not, perhaps, a better or a braver seaman in her service. When we left Nicholaef, he conveyed us over the Bog, which is here near three miles wide, in his barge, with twelve oars, accompanied by Mr Young, an engineer—another Englishman of talent in the service of Russia, from whom we also experienced all possible attention and civility. The Baron de Bar, and Count Heiden, administered every kindness which it was in their power to bestow; and we quitted Nicholaef full of gratitude for acts of benignity, to which, with the exception of the paternal solicitude and favours of Professor Pallas, we had long been strangers.

Our journey from Nicholaef to Odessa will be best seen by reference to any good map of the south of Russia, as there is not a single object the whole way which the reader will not find there laid down. The whole is a flat steppe, intersected by streams and inlets of water, across which we were conveyed sometimes in boats, and sometimes over shallows, sitting in the carriage. We noticed some remarkable salt lakes, and, by the last post-house before arriving at Odessa, an aggregation of mineralised sea-shells, used as a material in building the cottages, of such extraordinary beauty and perfection as to merit a more particular description. I have since annually exhibited a specimen of this singular deposit, in the mineralogical lectures given to the University of Cambridge; and as it offers a satisfactory example of the change which animal matter undergoes by decomposition, as well as a most striking proof of the draining of the great oriental plain by means of the

* [Even at the time of Dr Clarke's visit, Nicholaef was not entitled to this distinction, but at present is altogether misplaced. Its population does not exceed 12,000, principally sailors and artizans connected with the dock-yards. Its importance is derived principally from its being the residence of the admiral-in-chief of the Black Sea.]

canal of Constantinople, I shall here beg leave to state the result of my own observations upon the subject.

It is the opinion of the celebrated Bournon, that, whenever the abode of a testaceous animal ceases to conduce to purposes of life, and is abandoned by its inhabitant, it becomes properly a mineral; that, for example, as a specimen of carbonated lime, it possesses in an eminent degree the characters and fracture of that substance, when indurated or crystallised. In proof of this, he once exhibited to me, in the fracture of a common oyster-shell, the obtuse angle of the Iceland spar, accurately corresponding with the geometrical law of the mineral, and having precisely an equal number of degrees ascertained by the goniometer. If Saussure had not discovered limestone lying beneath rocks of the most ancient formation, the French would long ago have established a theory, that all the strata of carbonated lime upon the surface of the globe have resulted from the decomposition of animal matter, deposited during a series of ages. Whoever has attended to the appearances left by testaceous animals, particularly in the cavities of the *cornu ammonis*, must have been struck with the remarkable circumstance, that where an escape of the fleshy part of the animal has been precluded by the surrounding shell, pure and perfect crystals of carbonated lime have been the extraordinary result; and must also frequently have remarked that shells alone, independent of the admission of any extraneous substance, have, by their deposit, constituted immense strata of limestone. For the truth of this, it is unnecessary to adduce a more striking example than the instance afforded of the limestone in the neighbourhood of Odessa. It is in a semi-indurated state, but hardens by exposure to the atmosphere. On this account, and also from its remarkable levity, it is a favourite material for building. When examined closely, it exhibits, throughout the entire mass, no other appearance than an aggregate of small cockle-shells, all exactly of the same size, perfect in their forms, but crumbling in the hand, and coloured by the yellow or red oxide of iron. The chemical analysis of this mineral is nearly that of the Ketton-stone; yielding no other ingredients than lime and carbonic acid, except a very small proportion of alumine and oxide of iron. The stratum from which it is dug is of considerable thickness, and lies several yards above the present level of the Black Sea. It may be noticed all along the coast, and especially within the port of Odessa. Similar appearances may be traced the whole way from the Black Sea, towards the north, as far as the forty-eighth line of latitude, and perhaps over all Asiatic Tartary.—Whence it follows, that the level of the waters which appear at intervals between the parallels of French longitude forty and eighty, was not always what it is now; and that the period of its incipient fall may be traced to an era subsequent to that of the deluge in the time of Noah, seems evident, not only from history, but also by a reference to existing natural phenomena. At the bursting of the Thracian Bosporus, whether in consequence of a volcano, whose vestiges are yet visible, or of the immense pressure caused by an accumulated ocean against the mound there presented, the whole of Greece experienced an inundation, the memory of which was preserved by the inhabitants of Samothrace so late as the time of Diodorus Siculus; and its effects are still discernible in the form of all the islands in the south of the Archipelago which slope towards the north, and are precipitous upon their southern shores. Not, therefore, to rely on those equivocal legends of ancient days, telling how Orpheus with the Argonauts passed into the Baltic, over the vast expanse of water by which it was then united to the Euxine, we may reasonably conclude, with Tournefort, Pallas, and other celebrated men, that the Aral, the Caspian, and the Black Sea, were once combined; and that the whole of the great eastern plain of Tartary was one prodigious bed of water. The draining, which even now takes place perpetually by the two channels of Taman and Constantinople, is by some deemed greater than the produce of all the rivers which flow into the Sea of Azof, and the Black Sea. The former has become so shallow, that during certain winds, as before related, a passage may be effected by land from Taganrock to Azof, through the bed of the sea. Ships, which formerly sailed to Taganrock and the mouths of the Don, are now unable to approach either the one or the other: from all which it may not be unreasonable to conclude, that both the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azof, by the diminution their waters hourly sustain, will at some future period become a series of marsh lands, intersected only by the course and junction of the rivers which flow into them. An opposite opinion was however maintained by the learned Tournefort, who considered the discharge of water by the canal of Constantinople as not comparable to the product of any one of the great rivers which flow into those seas. The same author, surprised therefore that the Black Sea does not increase, observes that it receives more rivers than the Mediterranean; as if unmindful that the Mediterranean contains the sum of all the rivers that flow into the Mæotis and the Black Sea, superadded to those which properly belong unto itself. Other writers also, believing that more water flows into the Black Sea than out of it, endeavour to account for its present altitude, either by imagining a subterraneous channel, or explain the cause from the effect of evaporation. The Russians entertain notions of a subterraneous channel, in order to account for the loss of water in the Caspian, one of whose rivers is full as considerable as any that falls into the Black Sea. As far as my judgment goes, the rivers which fall into the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azof, do not communicate more water than flows through the canal of Constantinople; and therefore, admitting the effect of evaporation, the level of the Black Sea insensibly falls. The Don, the Kuban, the Phase, the Dnieper, the Dniester, the Danube, and many other rivers making a great figure in geography, have a less important appearance when surveyed at their embouchures. The greatest of them all, the Danube, is very shallow at the mouth; and its waters, extended over an immense surface, lie stagnating in shallow marshes, among an infinity of reeds, and other aquatic plants, subject to very considerable evaporation, besides the loss sustained during its passage to the sea.

The building of the present town of Odessa, and the construction of the pier for its port, were works carried on entirely under the direction of Admiral Ribas, who captured the place from the Turks. The late empress intrusted every thing concerning it into his hands, as a mark of her approbation of his conduct: the Emperor Paul, by way of thwarting his mother's benevolent design, dismissed the admiral altogether, leaving him, with a large family, destitute of any support. This was exactly the sort of system pursued by that monarch when we were in Russia, towards every veteran in his service. Never was the remark of Frederick of Prussia more completely verified, who used this saying, "Officers are as lemons: we squeeze out the juice, and cast away the rind!" I had an opportunity to examine a catalogue of officers who had resigned, or had been dismissed the service, since Paul's accession. Including the civil list, the persons excluded amounted to the astonishing number of 30,000; 18,000 dismissed by order, and 12,000 who had voluntarily resigned. In the list of these, appeared the names of some individuals who had only been in office three days; others a week; thus the whole body of officers in the emperor's service had been changed with such surprising rapidity, that there was hardly a family in all Russia unaffected by his caprice. The bad policy of this was even then so evident, that every one knew the number of disaffected persons by far exceeded the list of those whom fear or mercenary consideration kept in subordination; and it was apprehended that the whole empire, in consequence of the slightest emotion, would be thrown into disorder. The first consequence of any such disturbance would have been the massacre of all the nobles; and regard for their own safety was the only bond, on the part of the nobility, which kept them from betraying their disaffection. Still it was evident that the life of the sove-

reign would soon atone for his disgraceful tyranny; and the result has proved that his death was even nearer than we then apprehended.

During the time that Admiral Ribas held the direction of affairs at Odessa, a plan was projected for the construction of a pier, which would have rendered the port equally an object of utility and grandeur. This project was submitted to the emperor's consideration, who ordered it to be put in execution. It was therefore naturally expected, that the sovereign, who was to reap every advantage from the proposed undertaking, would so far patronise it as to advance the money for its completion. Paul however hesitated, and the work ceased. In the meantime, the commerce of Odessa languished; the rising prosperity of the town was checked; the buildings were not carried on; the merchants began to leave the place, and the necessity of the undertaking became daily more and more alarmingly visible. At last, petition after petition having been offered in vain, the matter came to a singular issue. The emperor resolved to turn usurer. He proposed to lend them a sum of money, with enormous interest, and upon the strongest security; yet left the inhabitants no option, but compelled them to accept the loan upon his own terms, and ordered the work to be carried on. The inhabitants, finding they could not offer security for the whole charge, which was estimated at five hundred thousand roubles, began to bargain with their sovereign as with a Jew; begging his permission to borrow of him only half the sum proposed, to construct a pier upon a smaller scale. To this Paul consented, and the work so planned was nearly finished when we arrived; but to those who have seen the original design, the meanness and insufficiency of the undertaking is lamentably conspicuous.

The town of Odessa is situated close to the coast, which is here very lofty, and much exposed to the winds. The air is reckoned pure, and remarkably wholesome. Corn is the principal article of exportation. The imports are—dried and conserved fruits from Constantinople, Greek wines, tobacco, and other Turkish merchandise. The villages in the neighbourhood produce butter and cheese; these are rarities at table in the south of Russia. Potatoes, which seldom appear in other towns, are sold in the market, and they are even carried as presents to Constantinople. The melons of the neighbourhood are remarkably fine. They have one sort, which came to them from Turkey, superior in flavour to any perhaps known in the world. The inside of this melon is of a green colour; and the seed, after it is opened, is found in a cavity in the centre, quite detached from the sides of the fruit, in a dry mealy case, or bag, in shape resembling a head of Indian wheat. This remarkable character will serve to distinguish it at any time. The inhabitants, to preserve the seed, pierce those bags with skewers, and hang them up in their houses. The water-melons of Odessa are sometimes superior to the finest sold in the markets of Naples, and are nearly equal to those found upon the coast of Syria. The whole country is destitute of wood; for fuel they burn weeds gathered in the steppes, as well as bundles of reeds and cow-dung: this last they collect and stick upon the sides of their houses; a custom practised in the Isle of Portland, and throughout the county of Cornwall.

Odessa is remarkable for the superior flavour of its mutton, which, however, does not equal that of the Crimea. Their sheep are slaughtered at a very early age, and brought to table the day they are killed. This circumstance renders animal food unpleasant at a Russian table, because it cannot be eaten, unless dressed until it falls to pieces. The same custom prevails with regard to poultry, which are neither killed nor picked until the water of the kettle boils in which they are to be dressed. Of all the dishes known in Russia, there is nothing in such general esteem, from the peasant to the prince, as a kind of *pâtés*, which are called *piroghi*. These, at the tables of the great, are served with the soup in the first course. In the streets of Moscow and Petersburg, they are sold upon stalls. They are well-tasted, but extremely greasy, and often full of oil; consisting of minced meat, or brains, rolled up in pancakes, which are afterwards fried in butter, or oil, and served hot. The rolls described by Bruce, with which women in a certain part of Ethiopia feed their husbands, are nearly similar, only the meat is raw, and the roll is of dough; yet the mouth of a Russian prince would water at the sight of the Ethiopian piroghi. Pigeons are rarely seen at the tables of the Russians; they entertain a superstitious veneration for the animal, because the Holy Ghost assumed the form of a dove. Those birds are kept more for amusement than for food, and are often maintained with great care at an enormous expense. The rich employ servants to look after them, and to teach them a number of tricks; among which a very favourite one is, to rise from the hand, whirling in spiral curves to a very great height, and then to fall at once like a stone, until they come within a few yards of the ground. They are taught to whirl with long white wands, and to fall by means of a string fastened to them by which they are suddenly pulled down, until by degrees they acquire the art of falling without being thus admonished.

The etiquette of precedency, so rigorously observed at a Russian table, prevails also in the order of the dishes and bottles arranged for the guests. In barbarous times we had something like it in England. Perhaps the custom is not even now quite extinct in Wales; it is preserved in large farm-houses in remote parts of England, where all the family, from the master to the lowest menial, sit down to the same table. The choicest dishes are carefully placed at the upper end, and are handed to those guests who sit near the owner of the mansion, according to the order in which they sit; afterwards, if any thing remains, it is taken gradually to the rest. Thus a degree in precedency makes all the difference between something and nothing to eat; for persons at the bottom of the table are often compelled to rest satisfied with an empty dish. It is the same with regard to the wines; the best are placed near the top of the table, but, in proportion as the guests are removed from the post of honour, the wine before them diminishes in quality, until at last it degenerates into simple quass. Few things can offer more repugnance to the feelings of an Englishman, than the example of a wealthy glutton, pouring forth eulogium upon the choice wines he has placed before a stranger merely out of ostentation, while a number of brave officers and dependents are sitting by him, to whom he is unable to offer a single glass. I sometimes essayed a violation of this barbarous custom, by taking the bottle placed before me, and filling the glasses of those below; but the offer was generally refused through fear of giving offence by acceptance, and it was a mode of conduct which I found could not be tolerated, even by the most liberal host. At a Russian table two tureens of soup usually make their appearance, as we often see them in England: but if a stranger should ask for that which is placed at the bottom of the table, the master of the house regards him with dismay, the rest all gaze at him with wonder, and when he tastes what he has obtained, he finds it to be a mess of dirty and abominable broth, stationed for those who never venture to ask for soup from the upper end of the table.

A droll accident befell two English gentlemen of considerable property, who were travelling for amusement in Russia. They were at Nicholaef; and, being invited by the chief admiral to dinner, were placed as usual at the head of the table, where they were addressed by the well known title of *Milords Anglois*. Tired of this ill-placed distinction, they assured the admiral they were not lords. "Then pray," said their host, "what rank do you possess?" The lowest Russian admitted to an admiral's table possesses a certain degree of rank; all who are in the service of the crown are noble by their profession; and they cannot comprehend the title of a mere *gentleman*, without some specific title annexed. The Englishmen replied, however, that they had no other rank than that of English gentlemen. "But your titles? You must have some title!" No, said they, we have no title but that of English gentle-

men. A general silence, and many sagacious looks, followed this last declaration. On the following day, they presented themselves again at the hour of dinner, and were taking their station as before. To their surprise they found that each person present, one after the other, placed himself above them. One was a general; another a lieutenant; a third an ensign; a fourth a police-officer; a fifth an army surgeon; a sixth a secretary; and so on. All this was very well; they consoled themselves with the prospect of a snug party at the bottom of the table, where they would be the farther removed from ceremony; but lo! when the dishes came round, a first was empty; a second contained the sauce without the meat; a third the rejected offals of the whole company; and at length they were compelled to make a scanty meal upon the slice of black bread before them, and a little dirty broth from the humble tureen, behind whose compassionate veil they were happy to hide their confusion; at the same time being more amused than mortified at an adventure into which they now saw they brought themselves by their unassuming frankness. Had either of them said, as was really the case, that they were in the service of his Britannic Majesty's Militia, or Members of the Associated Volunteers of London, they would never have encountered so unfavourable a reception.

But more serious difficulties frequently follow a want of attention to these prejudices, in visiting the interior of Russia. When a poderosnoi, or order for post-horses, is made out, it will often be recommended to foreigners, and particularly to Englishmen, to annex some title to the simple statement of their names. Without this, they will be considered during their journey as mere slaves, and will be liable to frequent insult, delay, and imposition. The precaution is of such importance, that experienced travellers have introduced the most ludicrous distinctions upon these occasions; and have represented themselves as barons, brigadiers, inspectors, and professors—in short, as any thing which may enable them to pass as freedmen. For example: "*Monsieur le Capitaine* A.B.C., *avec le Directeur* D.E.F., *et le President* G.H.I., *et leurs domestiques* K.L.M." So necessary is a due regard to these particulars, that an officer of very high rank in the service assured us, on leaving Moscow, we should find ourselves frequently embarrassed in our route, because we would not abandon the pride of calling ourselves commoners of England; and we had reason to regret the neglect with which we treated his advice, during the whole of our subsequent travels in the country.

It has been already stated, that we left the Crimea with an intention to undertake a journey by land to Constantinople. The route is usually practicable from Odessa, by the way of Dubosar, on the frontier, to Yassy, Silistria, and Adrianople. On account of the rumoured dangers which might be apprehended from the rebel adherents of Pasvan d'Oglou, we had solicited from our ambassador at the Porte an escort of janissaries to meet us at Yassy. The road is calculated for the conveyance of any kind of wheeled vehicle. Prince Nassau, during his legation to the Porte, had been accompanied by nearly a hundred carriages; and the Turkish guard, stationed at short intervals the whole way, renders the journey secure. This route is also interesting, on account of the mountainous district through which it leads, in parts of which the snow is said to remain during the whole year; and also from the circumstance of crossing the Danube so near its embouchure. Almost immediately after leaving Silistria, the ascent begins of that ridge of mountains anciently called Hœmus, after attaining the summit of which the descent is seldom interrupted the whole way to Adrianople; from this place there is an excellent road to Constantinople. A shorter route, but less frequented, and less convenient, conducts the traveller along the coast of the Black Sea, to the Thracian Bosporus. These considerations strongly instigated us to pursue our intended expedition by land. Circumstances however occurred, which induced us to a different determination; and though we narrowly escaped the passage of the Black Sea with our lives, we had ultimately reason to rejoice, for we were afterwards informed that an order from the Russian government was actually expedited to Dubosar, with instructions for our apprehension, and a more particular examination of our papers and baggage than the nature of their contents would have rendered desirable. By one of those fortunate accidents which sometimes befall adventurers in a boisterous world, we found in the port of Odessa a Venetian brigantine, laden with corn, and bound for the Adriatic, whose master, Il Capitauo Francesco Bergamini, not only eagerly embraced the opportunity of conveying us to Constantinople, but promised also to assist us in facilitating our escape, by enforcing the validity of the passports we had brought with us. He waited only the arrival of his own order for sailing, from the office at Nicholaef, and we made every thing ready for our embarkation.

[Very few towns have risen from insignificance to importance with the same rapidity as Odessa. In 1789, it was a small Tartar town called Hadgibey, which was taken from the Turks by General Ribas, and a colony of Greeks established there by Catherine II. The disadvantages attending Cherson as a port, and the necessity of an outlet for the Polish provinces acquired by Russia, induced the empress to accede to the suggestions of General Ribas, and to order the formation of a commercial port on the site of Hadgibey. In 1796, therefore, the name of Odessa was given to it, from a very erroneous notion that it was the site of the ancient town of Odessus. The progress of the town was not very considerable up to 1803, when the fortunate nomination of the late Duc de Richelieu, as governor, was productive of great advantages to Odessa. Under his wise and liberal policy, the commerce of the town increased very rapidly, the amount of duties collected rising from 155,000 roubles in 1804, to 683,607 in 1813, and the population, as it is said, from 4000 to 30,000. In 1814, the Count de Laugeron succeeded Richelieu, and the prosperity of the town received no check until the year 1822, when a project was started by the court of Petersburg, of abrogating its privileges as a free port, although guaranteed for fourteen years certain, from the year 1819. This scheme, however, which would have been so destructive to the interests of those who had placed reliance upon imperial faith, was not adopted, and the appointment of Count Vorontzof as governor in 1823, has preserved Odessa from ruin. It is now by far the most important town in the south of Russia, as a few of its statistics will testify.

In the year 1827, the number of ships that arrived at Odessa was 855, and the number that departed 790. The value of the importations was 12,773,893 roubles, and that of the exportations was 20,380,388 roubles. According to the registers made in the year 1826, the population was 32,995, of which 29,497 were Russian subjects, and the rest foreigners. From April to October, the population is increased by from 7000 to 10,000 individuals, consisting of labourers and waggon-drivers, who arrive from different parts of the empire, and of Polish seigneurs and foreign merchants, who come for commercial purposes. (Morton, p. 238.)

Odessa is built upon a regular plan, in the modern style of architecture; its streets are spacious, and its buildings large; it has indeed been denominated Petersburg in miniature. Besides the mercantile buildings, the quarantine establishment, the fortress, and other erections public and private, which are all upon a very extensive scale, Odessa is distinguished for several scientific establishments, a museum, and institutions for the advancement of agriculture in the south of Russia. The educational establishments of Odessa are particularly esteemed, especially that founded by the Duc de Richelieu, and which is called the Lycée Richelieu.

Like most of the other towns on the shore of the Black Sea, there is a great scarcity of water and fuel at Odessa. Wood is enormously dear, and coals are brought both from England, and from the native mines of Bakhmonte, in the government of Ekaterinoslaf, but they are necessarily sold at a very high price. The cost of obtaining an adequate supply of water for a

moderate family is ten roubles a-week, forming, for so indispensable an article, a prodigious item of expenditure.

It would appear that literature is not in a very flourishing condition, since there is only one newspaper published, and only one bookseller's shop in the town. Considering that Odessa is the third town in the empire, such a woeful deficiency is rather surprising.

In concluding this short notice of Odessa, it may be observed, that steam-boats ply regularly from that town to the principal ports in the Euxine. The introduction of those vessels into that sea may be hereafter attended with extraordinary results, both in promoting civilisation and in advancing the military views of Russia.]

CHAPTER XXV.

VOYAGE FROM ODESSA TO THE HARBOUR OF INEADA IN TURKEY.

The contrast which prevails between a Russian and a Cossack, or between a Russian and a Tartar, has perhaps already been sufficiently delineated; but there is a third point of opposition in which a Russian may be placed, even more amusing than either of these; namely, that in which he is contrasted with a Greek. The situation of Odessa is not very remote from the spot, in which, eighteen centuries ago, similar comparisons served to amuse Ovid during his melancholy exile. He found on either side the Danube a different race of men. On the south were the Getæ, whose origin was the same as that of the Greeks, and whose mode of speech he describes as still retaining corrupted traces of the Greek language. On the north were the Sarmatians, the progenitors of the Russians. According to his account, however, both the Getæ and Sarmatæ belonged to the same nation. Perhaps we are not authorised in considering the modern Greeks as legitimate descendants of the Getæ. Be that as it may, the former are found at this day, negotiating with as ferocious a people on the Euxine coast as Ovid himself selected for the originals of his picture of the barbarians upon the Ister; and the two people are instantly distinguished from each other by their striking peculiarity of feature. In order to render the contrast as forcible as possible, let us select a Greek from any of the islands or shores of the Archipelago, and place him by the side of a Russian. The latter, particularly if in uniform, and of a rank above the peasant, resembles one of those figures which children cut out in wood; requiring considerable address in poising to be sustained upon its legs. The Greek, on the other hand, active and lithy as a serpent, twists himself into every variety of posture, and stands in almost every attitude. Firm upon his feet, and generally exhibiting a graceful waving line of figure, he seems as if he would fall, like a cat, upon his legs, although tossed in any direction. The features of the Greek may be compared to those of the Portuguese and French; having the dark hair and eyes of the former, with the fixed grimace of the latter. Generally speaking, the men among the Greeks are not handsome; their stature is small, although well proportioned. The Russian too has a diminutive person, but his face is in every thing the reverse of that of the Greek; offering in profile a concavity, which is very remarkable. This concavity is increased in the line of a peasant's countenance by the projection of the beard from the chin, and a quantity of bushy hair upon the forehead. The line which may be traced to express the profile of a Greek, is, on the contrary, convex. A remarkable distance may be observed from the nose to the mouth, which is never a pleasing character in physiognomy, as it gives a knavish hypocritical expression to the countenance. The Russian has not this distance on the upper lip. The Greek has, moreover, frequently a wide mouth, thick lips, and very large teeth. His forehead is low, and his chin small. His nose partakes of the convexity of his face, more than of that partial aquiline which is generally considered as characteristic of the Roman countenance; and when this prevails to excess, the features resemble those of fawns and satyrs seen in ancient sculpture. Of course, a description of this kind, calculated merely for amusement, cannot be without many remarkable exceptions. The inhabitants of Greece often differ from each other; those of Lacedæmon, and all the western coast of the Morea, together with the natives of Zante and Cephalonia, are a much finer race of men, with nobler features and more athletic figures, than any of the inhabitants of the Archipelago.

The anxiety in which we awaited the return of Captain Bergamini's messenger from Nicholaef, may easily be imagined. We had nearly done with all that concerned Russia; yet no prisoners, under confinement in a dungeon, ever prayed more earnestly for a jail delivery, than we did to get free from the country. So surrounded with danger was every Englishman, from the Baltic to the Black Sea, and so little certain of being able to put any plan in execution, that we considered it more than an even chance in favour of our being again detained, and perhaps sent back the whole way to Petersburg. In the meantime, a number of little Turkish boats were continually sailing in and out of the port of Odessa; and although they were so small that few would venture in them even upon the Thames in rough weather, yet we sometimes fancied they would facilitate our escape, if our scheme of sailing in the Venetian vessel should fail of success. They were laden with merchandise to the water's edge, and carried such enormous sails, that one would expect to see them upset with every gust of wind; yet we were told, their owners ventured in them not only to Constantinople, but almost to every port of the Black Sea. It must be confessed, we did not anticipate with much pleasure the necessity of a voyage in one of these bean-cods; for although Tournefort was induced to publish a description, in refutation of all history and tradition, concerning the nature of the Black Sea, nothing more erroneous than his representation has ever appeared. The darkness which often covers it, particularly during winter, from the thick fogs and falling snow, is so great, that mariners are unable to discern a cable's length from their vessels. The entrance to the canal of Constantinople, always difficult, becomes in such cases impracticable. There is no sea in which navigation is more dangerous. Shallows, hitherto unnoticed in any chart, occur frequently when vessels are out of sight of land; and the dreadful storms which prevail come on so suddenly, and with such fury, that every mast is carried overboard almost as soon as the first symptom of a change of weather is noticed. Perhaps more skilful sailors might guard against danger from the winds; as it more than once happened, when the Russian fleet put to sea, that the ships commanded by Admirals Priestman and Wilson were the only vessels which escaped being dismasted. Yet even those experienced officers described the Black Sea as exhibiting tempests more horrible than any thing they had ever encountered in the ocean. Many vessels were lost during the year we visited Odessa, by the storms which preceded and followed the equinox. A hulk driven on shore at Varna was all the intelligence received of the fate of a merchant ship which sailed out of port while we were there; and not a soul on board escaped. Another was wrecked attempting to enter the canal of Constantinople, and eight sailors, with two officers, were drowned; the rest of the crew were saved by remaining a whole day on the ship's yards, until the storm abated, when they swam on shore. These storms were so great, that an alarm prevailed on shore for the safety of the houses; during one day and night, the stoutest stone walls seemed unequal to resist the violence of the gale. The vineyards at Sudack, as Professor Pallas by letter informed us, and along the south coast of the Crimea, were destroyed; houses were unroofed; and all those with casements had their windows forced in by the tempest.

Odessa will ever be a port of great importance to Russia, while she is prevented from laying her hands upon the Turkish empire; because, from its proximity to the Porte, a constant eye is kept upon the operations of the Turks. It has also the advantage of being ob-

structed by ice so rarely, that a vessel may generally escape; whereas, in the other ports of the Black Sea, an enemy from the ice may attack the ships as well as the works, which happened when the Russians took Oczakof. The extraordinary degrees of temperature which occur in these latitudes, are altogether unaccountable. Captain Bergamini informed us that his ship was once detained five months in the mouth of the Danube by the freezing of the sea. Ovid, during his residence near the same place, had witnessed a similar event. Upon the subject of English commerce and navigation in the Black Sea, I avoid going into much detail, from the consciousness that my personal observations were of limited extent.

The fortress of Odessa is small, but kept in good order; it has, like that of Cherson, a double fosse. We paid one visit to the commandant, a genuine Russian, living in a little hole, among bundles of official writings, and stinking like a hog. In answer to a very rude interrogation concerning our business, we said, with palpitating hearts, that we came to have our passports signed. After keeping us in a state of most painful suspense for about half an hour, the expected rouble being paid, and the *hums* and *haws*, and difficulties of office, thereby done away, we heard the cheerful word *carashol*, which never sounded so agreeably in our ears; and we withdrew, with the important paper close folded and concealed from the inquisitive observation of several spies of the police, who, with outstretched necks and eager eyes, seemed aware that it contained wherewithal to gratify their curiosity.

On the morning of the last day of October, at daybreak, Captain Bergamini, of the *Moderato*, came with the joyful intelligence that all was ready for his departure; and begged us to hasten on board, as the wind was favourable, and he wished to get under weigh with all possible expedition. The delays of the custom-house kept the vessel in port until ten o'clock. We embarked a little before nine. At ten precisely we began to heave the anchor, but from the foulness of the harbour it was with difficulty raised. The crew of the custom-house boat, who had left us, returned to get a little more brandy, and offered to lend us their assistance. At half after ten the vessel was in motion; but we lay to for the captain's nephew, who commanded another merchant-ship called *Il Piccolo Aronetto*, which had not yet cleared. Soon after eleven she came alongside; and with hearts elate, although still beating with anxiety, through dread of being again detained, we bade a last adieu to Russia; steering along the coast towards Akerman, in the mouth of the Dniester, which we passed in the evening. At four o'clock in the morning of the next day, we were called upon deck by the captain to see the Isle of Serpents, anciently Leuce, lying off the mouths of the Danube, and celebrated in history for the tomb and temple of Achilles. It is so small, that as we passed we could view its whole extent, which continued in sight until nine. According to the eye, it appeared to be near a mile in length, and less than half a mile in breadth. It is quite bare, being covered only with a little grass, and very low herbage. When carefully examined with a telescope, there did not seem to be upon it the smallest remains of antiquity. I made a drawing of it from the south-east. On the south side there appeared to be cliffs about fifty feet high. Might not its present name originate in the resemblance which the island bears to a serpent, or large fish, floating on the surface of the water? Many absurd stories of Turkish and Russian mariners are founded on a belief that the island is itself covered with serpents. An opportunity rarely occurs in which ships can lie-to in order to visit it; and if this was to happen, not a man of any of their crews would venture on shore, although there are twenty fathoms of water within a cable's length of the island, and any vessel may sail close to it. The Russians relate, that four persons, belonging to the crew of a ship wrecked there, no sooner landed than they encountered a worse enemy than the sea, and were all devoured by serpents. Ammianus Marcellinus records a similar superstition to have prevailed in his time, concerning the dangers of the place. I regret exceedingly that I did not land upon this island; because, after a description so remarkable and so recent as that of Arrian, who wrote about the second century, there is great reason to believe some interesting remains of antiquity might have been discovered. This secluded spot escaped the ravages to which almost every other portion of classical territory has been exposed; neither is it known that any traveller ever ventured there. Anciently it had various appellations; among these the most received was that of Leuce, or the White Island. It was so called in consequence of the white appearance caused by the swarm of sea-fowl, which in certain seasons of the year were seen to cover it; serving to render the island more visible. I have witnessed similar sights among the Hebrides, where the number of solan geese, and of other birds, cause the rocks and islands to appear as if capped with snow. All the superstitions respecting Leuce seem to have had their origin in its importance as a land-mark; the coast near the mouths of the Danube being so low, that mariners were unable to discern it, even when close in with the shore, and the island itself, obscured by the hazy atmosphere of the Black Sea, rendered navigation dangerous, except when conspicuous by its white birds.

The great obscurity which often prevails over the Black Sea in the winter, renders it a fortunate event to make the Isle of Serpents; not only, as was said before, from the impossibility of descrying the coast near the Danube, but because ships are liable to run upon it during the night. The principal cause of danger, however, must be attributed to the ignorance of pilots, and a deficiency of proper charts. We had on board two excellent sextants, and observations were daily made at noon; by these we found our latitude to equal 44 degrees 44 minutes, the ship lying at the time five leagues and a half to the south of the island. A third sextant on board the vessel commanded by the captain's nephew, was also employed by him; which enabled us, by comparison, to detect with greater certainty the errors in the French charts.

Having passed the Isle of Serpents, we fell in with the current from the Danube. So great is the extent over which its waters diffuse themselves from the shallowness of the sea, that although the discharge is scarcely adequate to our notions of so considerable a river, the effect is visible for several leagues, by the white colour communicated. Dipping buckets in the waves, we observed that the water was almost sweet, at the distance of three leagues from the mouth of the river, and within one league it was perfectly fit for use on board. The shore is very flat all the way from Odessa to the Danube, and so low near the river's mouth, that no other object appears to those who approach the shore, than tall reeds rising out of the water, or the masts of vessels lying in the river. A very singular appearance takes place in the mouths of the Danube, which I am unable to explain. The dolphins (or porpoises), which every where else exhibit a dark colour, are there perfectly white. This may wear so much the air of a fable, that, in proof of the fact, I shall only state a practice which prevails among Greek mariners, during mists and dark weather, of ascertaining their position by such phenomena. As soon as they descry the white dolphins, they become assured that they are in the current of the Danube, although in thirty fathoms water, and many leagues distant from its mouth. It has been already stated that the water is of a white colour, and probably from this circumstance arises the supposed colour of the dolphin.

After passing the mouths of the Danube, but still carried by its current, we observed four mountains with such regular conical forms, and so insular as to their situation in a horizon otherwise perfectly flat, that we at first supposed them to be immense tumuli. The captain, however, assured us that they were at least twenty-three leagues distant in Wallachia, our situation being then about three leagues from the shore. Soon after, another mountain appeared in view; making the whole group to consist of five. Other elevations of less mag-

nitude were afterwards visible; but speaking generally of the coast, it is low and flat.

November 2d.—Our observation by sextant this day, proved our latitude to be 44 degrees 25 minutes; the ship's distance from the mouths of the Danube being at the time of observation five leagues and a half. The water even here tasted very little brackish. Sounded, and found a depth of 150 English feet. We had calm weather during this and the preceding day.

November 3d.—The atmosphere somewhat overcast. We discovered the coast indistinctly from the mast-head, in thirty fathom water. Our latitude at noon was 43 degrees 30 minutes.

November 4th.—The atmosphere this day turbid. We had but little wind from the east, but a good deal of sea rose. From mid-day until five o'clock P. M. our course was S. S. W.: at that hour we descried Cape Kelegry, somewhat less than seven leagues distant. Unable to make any observation of the ship's latitude. Cloudy weather and a heavy sea.

November 5th.—The weather still hazy; a light wind from the east, and a heavy sea. The crew observed during the day that our vessel leaked, and made about an inch of water in four hours, owing to the heavy sea. At six in the evening there fell a calm, when we discovered the coast; and at day-break the next morning (November 6), observed distinctly the land at the mouth of the canal of Constantinople, distant about six leagues and a half. All this morning we were animated by the captain with such hopes of entering the canal, that we expected to breakfast in Constantinople. During our short voyage from Odessa, the captain, by lying-to continually for his nephew's ship, which proved but an indifferent sailer, had regularly lost one league in three; and it happened most unfortunately that we had to lie-to again at the very mouth of the canal, by which delay we not only lost the opportunity of getting in at that time, but nearly sacrificed the crews and cargoes of both ships. Landsmen are apt to magnify the danger they encounter by sea; but it will appear that in this instance little room was offered for amplification. At mid-day we stood opposite to the light-house of the canal; this bore only ten miles distant to the west: but a calm, accompanied by a heavy sea, prevented our approach. During the evening the crew were employed in working the pumps.

November 7th.—At sunrise the wind had gained considerable force, and the sails were reefed. We still discerned the mouth of the canal, and even the light-house on the Asiatic side. About ten, we took in all the reefs in the main-topsail; and at noon, the wind still increasing, struck the topsail yards. A tremendous sea rolled over the deck from one side to the other, and the water in the hold increasing fast, all hands were called to the pumps, which were kept working continually. At four in the afternoon we had our last view of the canal, distant about eight leagues. Within half an hour afterwards the Black Sea afforded a spectacle which can never be forgotten by those who saw it. We were steering with a hard gale and heavy sea from S. S. W., when there appeared in the opposite horizon clouds in the form of pillars, dark and terrible; these were whirled upon their bases, and advanced with astonishing rapidity along the horizon, on either side, against the wind. Our captain, who had retired for a short repose, being called by the boatswain to notice this appearance, instantly ordered all the yards to be struck, and we remained under bare poles, while a general silence prevailed on board. The suspense was not of long duration. Suddenly such a hurricane came upon the vessel from the north-west, that we thought she would have foundered in the mere attempt to take it, as their mode of expression is, *in poop*. During one entire hour the ship was suffered to drive before the storm, encountering all the fury of the wind and sea, without being able to bear away from the land. At every plunge our vessel made, her bowsprit and forecastle were carried under water; a few sailors at the helm were lashed to the steerage, but almost every thing upon the deck was washed away. If the tempest had continued half an hour longer, no one of the crew would have survived to tell the story. About five o'clock it somewhat abated, and the captain laid the vessel, as he termed it, *a la capa*, hoisting the jib, and a portion of the mainsail, to get clear of the shore. Still the vehement agitation of the waves continued, the deck being continually under water. At six o'clock it came on to blow again from the S. W., so that with the swell from two opposite points of the compass, at the same time, a sea was raised which none of our crew had ever beheld before. All this time the leak was gaining fast upon us, and we passed a night that cannot be described. Two Turkish vessels towards sunset were seen under the lee of the *Aronetto*, both of which foundered before morning, and every soul on board perished. To increase the horror of our situation, scarcely any of the crew could be kept to their station, but slunk away, and crept to their hammocks, leaving the ship at the mercy of the sea.

The next day, Saturday, November 8th, at noon, we made the high land to the south of the canal; bearing S. W., and distant about ten leagues. The tempest continued as before, during the whole day and following night, but we were able to keep the pumps going, and gained considerably upon the leak. Three hours after midnight, on the morning of November 9th, we made the coast of Anatolia, near the mouth of the canal. At noon on this day, a calm succeeded, which was, if possible, more terrible then the hurricane; the ship continuing to labour incessantly, with her deck continually under water, the sails and rigging flying to pieces, and all things at the mercy of the waves. The whole of Sunday, November 9th, was passed in the same manner, until about six P. M., when a light wind springing up from the south, enabled us to put the ship's prow to the westward; and about eight on the following morning, November 10th, we again made the land at the mouth of the canal. The whole of this day we continued steering with a heavy sea towards the S. S. W., but from midnight until seven A. M., November 11th, a stormy wind prevailing from the S. W., we kept the ship's head W. and by N., when we discovered the coast on the European side, and a mountain which the sailors called Gabbiam, to the N. W. of the harbour of Ineada in Turkey. Towards noon, the weather, fortunately for us, became more calm; and we discovered that the ship's cargo, which was of corn, had shifted, the pumps becoming choked with her lading, and the vessel, at the same time, preponderating towards her starboard side. We therefore opened all her larboard port-holes, and moved as much of her cargo as possible; but finding it impossible to right her, and being to windward of the harbour of Ineada, we put the ship's head to the west, and to our great joy, at four o'clock P. M., came to an anchor within the port, in six fathoms water.

The harbonr of Ineada lies in 41 degrees 52 minutes of north latitude. A few scattered houses upon its shore carry on a small trade, in the occasional supply of coffee, tobacco, dried beef, cheese, curd, fruit, and fresh water, to Turkish mariners, and other navigators of the Black Sea. Charcoal is also there made for exportation; several fabrics busy in its preparation, were seen smoking near the beach, and upon the hills above, when we arrived. The chief part of it is sent to Constantinople, where it is almost the only article of fuel. Turkish boats were continually lading with it while we remained. There is no village nor inhabited spot within three hours' distance of this port.* The interior of the country was described as in a very dangerous state; especially the road to Adrianople, owing not so much to the adherents of the rebel chief, Pasvan Oglou, as to the number of Turkish troops passing under various pretences, and to the banditti which more or less always infest that part of the country. Vessels frequenting this harbour generally prefer its

* Distances in Turkey, and almost all over the East, are measured by time—that is to say, by the number of hours usually employed by a caravan upon its march; and these are estimated according to the pace of a camel, which generally proceeds at the rate of three miles an hour.

north side, where they find good anchorage, among gravel mixed with black sand. It is only exposed to winds from the east and south-east, and is sufficiently spacious to contain a fleet. Like the port of Odessa, however, it rather merits the appellation of a road for shipping, than a harbour; as a heavy sea enters when those winds blow to which it lies open. At the time of our arrival, there was hardly a single boat in the port; but before we left it, we noticed five large merchant ships, besides upwards of thirty Turkish *checktirmeh*, all riding at anchor. The latter were stationed close to the shore on the north side, where there were two coffee-houses; these, in a Turkish harbour, correspond with the brandy shops, or ale-houses, frequented by English sailors, coffee being the substitute for spirits or beer. In those coffee-houses may be seen groups of Turkish mariners, each party squatted in a circle round a pan of lighted charcoal; and either smoking, sipping coffee, chewing opium, or eating a sort of sweetmeat, in shape like a sausage, made of walnuts or almonds, strung upon a piece of twine, and dipped in the concocted syrup of new wine, boiled until it has acquired the consistence of a stiff jelly, and bends in the hand like a piece of India-rubber. The coffee-houses have grated windows like those of a common jail, without any glass casement; and as they use no other stove to heat the room than the little braziers I have mentioned, the climate cannot be very rigorous. When we landed, we found the earth still covered with flowers at this advanced season of the year, particularly with those of a plant resembling the daisy, but with blossoms as large as an English shilling; perhaps those of the *bellis sylvestris*, common in Portugal. We found a species of *allium*, and the *hyacinthus botryoïdes*, very abundant; also a very beautiful *dianthus*, the flowers of which were aggregated at the end of every separate stem. Wild figs appeared among the rocks. We collected the seeds of several other plants. The trees had not yet cast their leaves; and we were surprised to find the heat of the sun, towards the middle of November, too great to render walking a pleasing exercise. We landed the evening of our arrival: and as first impressions are usually the most vivid in visiting new scenes, it may be well to note even the trivial events that took place upon this occasion.

It was nearly night. A number of Turkish sailors, black and frightful, were employed in lading a boat with charcoal, and singing during their labour. Their necks, arms, and legs, were naked. They had large whiskers, and wore turbans; the rest of their clothes consisted of a short jacket, with a pair of drawers. As we proceeded from the shore, a party of better dressed natives approached us, every one of whom was differently habited. One wore a long pelisse, with a high Tartar cap; another a large green turban; a third, who was a Greek slave, and kind of "*Mungo here, Mungo there,*" at every one's call, had upon his head a small skull-cap of red cloth. The heavy-looking Turks, rolling their yellow sleepy eyes, and exhaling volumes of smoke from their lips, spoke to no one, seeming to think it labour to utter a syllable, or even to put one foot before the other. Some few murmured out the word *Salaam*, upon which our captain congratulated us; adding, "The *welcome* of a Turk, and the *farewell* of a Russian, are pleasing sounds." Encouraged by this favourable character of the people, we applied to one of them for a little brandy, which our crew wanted, but were instantly checked by the captain, who asked, how we could think of asking a Turk for brandy?—and directed us to make our wishes known to the Greek slave, in a whisper, who would find means to procure it from them without offending their prejudices. None, however, could be obtained—tobacco, wood, charcoal, and coffee, were all they had at that time to sell; so, after taking a little of the latter, we returned on board.

During the night and the following day, Turkish boats continued to sail into the harbour; the atmosphere being cloudy and very dark, with a strong wind from the south, and a very threatening aspect in the sky. Their pilots said they came "*to see what the moon would do,*" it being within three days of the change. The next day we visited the north-west side of the port, near the coffee-houses. Close to the shore appeared the ruin of an ancient mole, part of which is under water; and on its western side, as we passed in the boat, might be discerned the shafts of ancient columns, lying at the bottom of the sea. Having landed, we found the Turkish sailors, with all the passengers who had arrived in their vessels, seated, as before described, round pans of charcoal, smoking. The master of the principal coffee-house brought us coffee in little cups, without milk or sugar, as thick as we drink chocolate; at least one half of each cup being filled with sediment. This, our interpreter told us, the Turks consider a great proof of perfection in coffee prepared for use; not liking it when presented only as a clear infusion. The reader perhaps will not feel himself much concerned to be further informed respecting such particulars. So fickle a thing is taste, that Englishmen resident in Turkey soon learn to prefer coffee made after the Turkish manner; and Turks, after living in England, drink their coffee clear.

The following day brought with it a greater number of vessels into the harbour; and many of the natives flocked to the coast to sell flesh and fruit, or to gratify their curiosity in viewing the numerous fleet assembled. By much the greater part of them were inhabitants of the mountains that separate Adrianople from the coast of the Black Sea. Those mountains, although not of a nature to be described as alpine, seem to possess great elevation, and have many profound valleys, covered with forests. Oaks, and other trees, flourish close to the sea shore. The cattle consist of sheep, cows, and buffaloes. The mountaineers who came to Ineada appeared as wild and savage a race as the natives of Caucasus: they were in stature stout and short; and all carried arms, both as weapons of defence, and badges of distinction. Their girdles were so laden with carbines, pistols, knives, and poignards, that, besides their cumbrous size, the mere weight of them must prove a serious burden. The handles of their pistols and poignards were made as tawdry as possible; being richly mounted in silver, studded with ivory, mother-of-pearl, and precious stones. Upon their heads they wore caps of black wool; and over these, coarse turbans bound about the forehead and temples. Upon their shoulders they carried the same kind of short cloak made of felt, or fleece, which is worn by the Circassian mountaineers; and from these they only differed in being more heavily armed, and in wearing the turban.

As their numbers increased, our visits to the shore became less frequent; not so much from the immediate danger to which our lives were exposed, as from certain characteristics of the Turks, which had been manifested more than once very unequivocally, and which rendered it impossible for any of our ship's crew to venture up the shore, or to leave the boat unattended. To these alarms were added others from the disputes which had taken place among them in their dealings, the noise of which reached even to our vessel as she lay at anchor. The Turkish sailors belonging to the little fleet of boats behaved better; and from these we often purchased tobacco, bread, brandy, honey, and other necessaries.

On the north side of the port is a series of basaltic columns, forming part of the cliff towards the sea; and they are distinguished by circumstances of mineral association, which merit particular notice. On the same side of the coast, to the westward of the basaltic range, the strata consist of a secondary deposit, which inclines to the horizon at an angle of about thirty-five degrees. Then occur the pillars in their prismatic forms, preserving in the line of their bases exactly the same dipping inclination towards the level of the sea, and they continue the whole way to the extreme point of the promontory, forming the northern side of the port of Ineada. There is not a single appearance any where, in or near the harbour, to indicate the agency of subterranean fire. The strata, of which the different basaltic layers form a continuation, are of lumachella, of ochreous indurated clay, of common limestone, or of grit;

these are all terminated by the range of prismatic rocks, which end abruptly at the point of the promontory, their further extension being lost in the sea. Therefore, as this series of basaltic rocks has the same dipping inclination which all the other strata possess, it seems, upon the most superficial examination, that they were deposited at the same time, and after the same manner, as the other secondary strata; and, by attending to their internal structure and composition, this truth appears further established. Their form in general is hexagonal, but rarely determined with precision. The substance of which they consist is decomposed and crumbling porphyry, so imperfectly adhering, that upon the slightest shock it falls to pieces. In climbing the sides of the cliff, we found it dangerous even to place our feet upon them, as whole masses gave way with a touch, and, falling down, were instantly reduced to the state of gravel. Nuclei of an aluminous substance might be discerned in the very centre of their shafts: and white veins of an exceedingly soft crumbling semi-transparent matter, not half an inch thick, traversed the whole range in a direction parallel to the base of the columns. At the same time, the vertical fissures between all the pillars were filled by a kind of white marble, forming a line of separation between them, which prevented their lateral planes from touching. The vertical veins, thus coating the sides of the columns, were in some instances three inches in thickness. From all these facts it seems evident, that the basaltic pillars of Ineada were the result of an aqueous deposition; and that their prismatic configuration, like that of starch, or the natural columns of trap seen at Halleberg and Hunneberg in Sweden, and many other parts of Europe, is entirely owing to a process of crystallisation, equally displayed in the minutest and most majestic forms; which, while it prescribes the shape of an emerald, also directs the particles of other mineral substances to assume that regularity of structure which has been the result, wheresoever they have liberty to combine according to the laws of cohesion.

CHAPTER XXVI.

FROM THE HARBOUR OF INEADA IN THE BLACK SEA, TO CONSTANTINOPLE.

On Friday, November the 21st, at ten o'clock in the evening, we heard a bustle in the little fleet of Turkish boats, and found they were all getting to sea as fast as possible. The wind had veered, after a foggy day, to the W. S. W., and the atmosphere became perfectly clear. Our captain, following their example, as perhaps deeming them more experienced mariners of the Black Sea, ordered his crew to weigh the anchor. When it came on board, we found it had lost one of its claws, which the sailors deemed a bad omen; and some of them said, if we left the port with such an anchor, we should never have occasion to use another. We were, however, under weigh; and, spreading all the great sails to the wind, soon quitted the harbour of Ineada, steering to the south-east. At three in the morning of the 22d, we were becalmed, and a hazy atmosphere surrounded us on all sides. At four, it came on to blow a gale from the north; and we made our course E. and S. until eight, when we discovered the coast near the mouth of the canal of Constantinople, and then steered S. E. Scarce had we made the land, when a heavy rain fell, which continued till mid-day; and we were involved in such darkness, that those in the poop could hardly see the forecastle. About noon, the wind having abated, and a prodigious sea rolling, the weather again cleared, and we discovered the light-tower on the European side of the canal, at no great distance. The boatswain first of all gave us the agreeable intelligence of its appearance from the mast-head; and soon after, we all saw it from the deck, stationed at the base of an immense range of mountains. At the same time, the whole coast, both on the European and the Asiatic side, opened with a degree of grandeur not to be described, and appeared like a stupendous wall opposed to the great bed of waters, in which the mouth of the canal could only be compared to a small crack, or fissure, caused by an earthquake. Soon afterwards, a fog covered us again, and we once more lost sight of land. We were then enveloped in such thick darkness, that we began to despair, and dread another scene of trial in that terrible sea, which the ancients so properly termed *inhospitable*. The superstition of the crew served, however, to amuse us, even in this state of suspense. Our old pilot, a Greek, hobbled about the ship, collecting small pieces of money from the crew, which he tied up in a rag, and bound upon the pole of the rudder. "It was to buy oil," he said, "for the lamp burning before an image at the light-house;" a curious trace of more ancient superstition, when mariners, entering the Bosporus from the Euxine, paid their vows on the precise spot where the *phanáry*, or light-tower, now stands. About half after one P. M. our hopes revived; a general cry on board announced that we were close in with the land. Two little Turkish boats, like nautili, had been flying before us the whole day, and served as pilots to encourage our perseverance in the course we held. Without them, the captain said he could not have ventured to carry such a press of sail upon a lee-shore, covered as it was by darkness. The rapidity with which they sailed was amazing. Nothing could persuade the captain but that they were "*due angeli*;" and in proof he asserted that they vanished as soon as they entered the Straits. We now clearly discerned the mouth of the canal, with the land both on the European and the Asiatic side; the houses upon the shore facing the Black Sea; and an enlivening prospect of groves and gardens. Every preparation was made for terminating our perilous voyage; the hold being opened to let out the anchor cables, and all the crew expressing their transports by mirth and congratulations.

As we entered the Straits, a miserable lantern placed upon a tower, on either side, presented to us all that was intended to serve as guidance for seamen during the night. Never were light-houses of more importance, or to which less attention has been paid. An officer of the customs put off from the shore in his boat, but contented himself with merely asking the name of the captain, and did not come on board. After passing the light-houses there appeared fortresses, the works of French engineers; and their situation, on rugged rocks, had a striking effect. Presently, such a succession of splendid objects was displayed, that, in all the remembrance of my former travels, I can recall nothing with which it may be compared. A rapid current, flowing at the rate of a league an hour, conveyed us from the Black Sea. Then, while we were ruminating upon the sudden discharge of such accumulated waters by so narrow an aqueduct, and meditating the causes which first produced the wonderful channel through which they are conveyed, we found ourselves transported, as it were, in an instant to a new world. Scarcely had we time to admire the extraordinary beauty of the villages scattered up and down at the mouth of this canal, when the palaces and gardens of European and Asiatic Turks, the villas of foreign ambassadors, mosques, minarets, mouldering towers, and ivy-mantled walls of ancient edifices, made their appearance. Among these, we beheld an endless variety of objects which seemed to realise tales of enchantment: fountains and cemeteries, hills, mountains, terraces, groves, quays, painted gondolas, and harbours, presented themselves to the eye, in such rapid succession, that, as one picture disappeared, it was succeeded by a second, more gratifying than the first. To the pleasure thus afforded, was added the joy of having escaped the dangers of an inhospitable sea; and it may be readily conceived, that a combination of circumstances more calculated to affect the heart could seldom occur. All the apprehensions and prejudices with which our minds had been stored, respecting the pestilence, barbarity, vices, and numberless perils of Turkey, vanished as ideal phantoms. Unmindful of the inward deformities of the country, we considered only the splendid exterior, which, as a vesture, she puts on; eagerly waiting the opportunity which might enable us

to minglo with the splendid and lively scene before our eyes. Snddenly, our vessel, instead of advancing, although every sail was distended by the wind, remained immoveable in the midst of the canal. An extraordinary and contrary current held us stationary. The waters of the Black Sea, flowing for ages towards the Sea of Marmora, had now taken an opposite course, and were returning to their native bed. At a loss to account for this new phenomenon, the captain ordered his men to let go the smaller anchor; and a number of Turks, in gondolas, crowding around the *Moderato*, informed us of the cause. A south-west wind had blown during many days, and by its violence diverted the ordinary course of the current. It was necessary, therefore, to wait until a change took place; and an occasion was thereby presented, in which we might not only examine more attentively the scenery around us, but also inquire into the history of a country remarkable for the natural wonders it exhibits, and highly interesting in its ancient annals.

We had passed the town of Büyückdery, a sort of watering-place, where foreign ministers at the Porte retire during the summer months, and which is filled with villas and palaces belonging to the inhabitants of Pera. Our vessel was anchored opposite to Yeuikeuy, a similar retreat of less celebrity. Here the canal is so narrow, that we found we could without difficulty converse with persons on either side; in Europe or Asia. The late hurricane had unroofed, and otherwise damaged, several houses in both these towns; and during the night after our arrival, a storm raged with such fury from the north, that the *Moderato* and the *Aronetto*, although held by stout cables fastened round the trees upon the shore, as well as by their anchors, drove from their station during the violence of the gale. Soon after midnight we were called by the watch to notice a dreadful conflagration at Constantinople, which seemed to fill the horizon with fire, and exhibited a fearful spectacle from our cabin windows. This sight is so common, that we were told we should find no notice taken of the accident when we reached the city; and this proved to be the case. The burning of fifty or a hundred houses is considered of no moment by persons who are not immediately sufferers; and their place is soon supplied by others, built precisely after the plan and model of those which have been destroyed.

On the following morning, a contrary wind and current still prevailing, notwithstanding the gale which had blown from the north during the night, we dispatched our interpreter to Constantinople, to inform the British ambassador of our safe arrival, to provide lodgings, and also to bring our letters: in the mean time, having procured a large boat, with a set of stout gondoliers, we were determined to adventure an excursion as far as the islands anciently called Cyaneæ, or Symplegades, which lie off the mouth of the canal. The accurate Busbequius confessed, that, in the few hours he spent on the Black Sea, he could discern no traces of their existence; we had, however, in the preceding evening, seen enough of them to entertain great curiosity concerning their nature and situation, even in the transitory view afforded by means of our telescopes. Strabo correctly describes their number and situation. "The Cyaneæ," says he, "in the mouth of Pontus, are two little isles, one on the European, and the other on the Asiatic side of the Strait, separated from each other by twenty stadia." The more ancient accounts, which represented them as sometimes separated, and at other times joined together, were satisfactorily explained by Tournefort, who observed, that each of them consists of one craggy island; but that, when the sea is disturbed, the water covers the lower parts, so as to make the different points of either resemble insular rocks. They are, in fact, each of them joined to the mainland by a kind of isthmus, and appear as islands when this is inundated, which always happens in stormy weather. But it is not clear that the isthmus, which connects either of them with the continent, was formerly visible. The disclosure has been probably owing to that gradual sinking of the level of the Black Sea before noticed. The same cause continuing to operate may hereafter lead posterity to marvel what is become of the Cyaneæ; and this may also account for their multiplied appearance in ages anterior to the time of Strabo. The main object of our visit was not, however, the illustration of any ancient author, in this particular part of their history, but to ascertain, if possible, by the geological phenomena of the coast, the nature of a revolution, which opened the remarkable channel, at the mouth of which those islands are situated.

Some time before we reached the mouth of the canal, steering close along its European side, we observed the cliffs and hills, which are there destitute of verdure, presenting, even to their summits, a remarkable aggregate of enormous pebbles; that is to say, heterogeneous masses of stony substances, rounded by attrition in water, and imbedded in a hard natural cement, yet differing from the usual appearance of breccia rocks; for upon a nearer examination they appeared to have undergone, first, a violent action of fire, and, secondly, that degree of friction, by long contact in water, to which their form was due. Breccia rocks do not commonly consist of substances so modified. The stratum formed by this singular aggregate, and the parts composing it, exhibited, by the circumstances of their position, striking proof of the power of an inundation; having dragged along with it all the component parts of the mixture, over all the heights above the present level of the Black Sea, and deposited them in such a manner as to leave no doubt concerning the torrent which passed towards the Sea of Marmora. As in a field of corn long agitated by a particular wind, we see the whole crop incline towards one direction, so at the mouth of the canal of Constantinople, all the strata of the mountains, and each individual mass composing them, lean from the north towards the south. On the point of the European lighthouse we found the sea, still tempestuous, beating against immense rocks of hard and compact lava; these had separated prismatically, and exhibited surfaces tinged by iron oxide wherever a division was effected.

From this point we passed to the Cyanean Isle, on the European side of the Strait, and there landed. It is remarkable for an altar of white marble, long known under the name of Pompey's Pillar. According to Tournefort, it was a Corinthian pillar, about twelve feet high, placed perhaps as a guide to vessels. The history of the altar is preserved by Dionysius of Byzantium, who relates, that an altar to Apollo was placed upon this rock; of which, says Tournefort, the base of this pillar may be a remnant, for the festoons are of laurel-leaves, which were from a tree sacred to that god. The altar remains entire; and the loss of the column has only restored it to its original state. The festoons are supported by rams' heads;* a mode of decoration alluded to by Euripides, in the fine descriptive scene between Orestes and Pylades, at the temple of the Tauridan Diana. The shores of this extremity of the Thracian Bosporus were once covered by every description of votive offering; by tablets, altars, shrines, and temples—monuments of the fears or gratitude of mariners, who were about to brave, or who had escaped, the dangers of the Euxine; and, on this account, from their peculiar sanctity, the different places in the mouth of the Strait were anciently dignified by the appellation of *Iepa*. The remains of those antiquities were so numerous, even in the time of Tournefort, that he describes the coasts "as covered by their ruins;" and

* During a subsequent visit which we made to this isle, with the commander of an American frigate, one of his boat's crew attempted to break off a part of the sculpture with a large sledge-hammer; instigated by an inferior officer, who wished to carry home a piece of the marble. We were fortunate in preventing a second blow, although some injury was done by the first. The loss the fine arts have sustained, in this way, by our own countrymen, in Greece and Egypt, cannot be too much regretted. A better taste seems, however, about to prevail. The example of Sir J. Stuart, who prevented the destruction of the granite Sarcophagus, in the great Pyramid of Djiza, by his positive orders to those of our troops in Egypt who were under his command, deserves the commendation of all Europe.

almost every thing interesting or important in ancient history, concerning them, has been concentrated, with equal brevity and learning, in his description of the canal of the Black Sea.

To return, therefore, to the immediate purport of our visit. The structure of the rock of which the island consists, corresponds with the nature of the strata already described; but the substances composing it were perhaps never before associated in any mineral aggregate. They all appear to have been more or less modified by fire, and to have been cemented during the boiling of a volcano. In the same mass may be observed fragments of various-coloured lava, trap, basalt, and marble. In the fissures are found agate, chalcedony, and quartz; but in friable and thin veins, not half an inch in thickness, and apparently deposited posterior to the settling of the stratum, of which the island consists. The agate appeared in a vein of considerable extent, occupying a deep fissure not more than an inch wide, and coated by a green substance, resembling some of the lavas of Ætna, which have been decomposed by acidiferous vapours. Near the same vein appeared a substance resembling native mercury, but in such exceedingly minute particles, in a crumbling matrix, that it was impossible to preserve a specimen. The summit of this insular rock is the most favourable situation for surveying the mouth of the canal; which thus viewed, has the appearance of a crater, whose broken sides opened towards the Black Sea, and, by a smaller aperture, towards the Bosporus. The Asiatic side of the Strait is distinguished by appearances similar to those already described; with this difference, that, opposite to the island, a little to the east of the Anatolian light-house, a range of basaltic pillars may be discerned, standing upon a base inclined towards the sea: and, when examined with a telescope, exhibiting very regular prismatic forms. From the consideration of all the preceding observations, and comparing events recorded in history with the phenomena of nature, it is perhaps more than a conjectural position, that the bursting of the Thracian Bosporus, the deluge mentioned by Diodorus Siculus, and the draining of the waters which once united the Black Sea to the Caspian, and covered the great oriental plain of Tartary, were all the consequence of earthquakes caused by subterranean fires, described as still burning at the time of the passage of the Argonauts, and whose effects are visible even at this hour.

The antiquities of the Thracian Bosporus have been noticed in a cursory manner by many travellers. The Abbé Barthelemy, in his Travels of Anacharsis, has, upon this subject, been particularly deficient, considering the extent of his resources, and the importance of the discussion to the work he had undertaken. By estimating the nature of the worship, and the antiquity of the temples, founded by the earliest inhabitants of the Bosporus upon its shores, some notion might be formed of the era in which the channel itself was first laid open. Formaleoni, whose writings have before been cited, has entered somewhat diffusely into the inquiry; and a reference to his work may be found highly gratifying to those who seek for information in this respect. Tournefort has assigned the situation of the castles on the European and Asiatic sides of the Strait, as the places where stood in ancient times the fanes of Jupiter Serapis, and of Jupiter Urius, called by Strabo respectively, the temples of the Byzantines, and of the Chalcedonians. The latter seems to have been the sanctuary held in supreme veneration; the district in which it stood was called, by way of eminence, *To Iepon.* This appellation is noticed by Herodotus, Demosthenes, Polybius, Arrian, Procopius, Marcianus, and Dionysius of Byzantium; some of whom expressly declare that it was used to signify the temple of Jupiter Urius. On which account writers maintain that it was from this temple Darius surveyed the Euxine, as mentioned by Herodotus; but Herodotus does not specify the name of the fane from whence the prospect was afforded. The fact is, that the Hieron was not a single temple, but a town and a port, containing a fane of great sanctity within its district, and situated upon the Asiatic side of the Bosporus. "The Thracian Bosporus," observes Polybius, "is ended at a place called Hieron, in which Jason, at his return from Colchis, is said first to have offered sacrifice to the twelve gods. This place, although it be situated in Asia, is not far removed from Europe, being distant only about twelve stadia from the temple of Serapis, which stands opposite to it upon the coast of Thrace." Marcianus also calls Hieron a country or district. A due attention to the features of the country may now perhaps ascertain the position of the eastern monarch. If he was then placed near any temple, or upon any point of land, called Hieron, low down towards the shore of the Strait, he could not have been gratified with the prospect he sought to obtain: nor does the text of Herodotus unequivocally warrant such an interpretation. In our return from the Cyanean Isles, we landed opposite Büyükdery, upon the Argyronian Cape, in order to examine the particular eminence which still bears the name mentioned by Dionysius Byzantius, of the "Bed of the Giant," or "Bed of Hercules." We there found the capital of a very ancient column of the Ionic order, not less than two feet and a half in diameter. It had been hollowed, and now serves as a basin, near the residence of the *dervish*, who relates the idle superstitions of the country, concerning the mountain, and the giant supposed to be there buried. It is therefore evident, that a temple of considerable magnitude once stood in this situation; as a slight knowledge of the country suffices to induce the belief that the inhabitants would never have been at the pains to carry this piece of antiquity there, whatever remains they may have removed by rolling them down the mountain. The temples which adorned the Hiera have disappeared, but the features of nature continue the same: the awful chasm, which in remoter periods conducted the waters of an immense ocean to overwhelm the territories of ancient Greece, now affords a passage to the fleets of the world, bearing the tributary wealth of nations; while its aspect, then so fearful, presents every assemblage that can captivate the eye. The Bosporus of Thrace, in whatever point of view it is considered, is unequalled in the interest it excites; whether with reference to the surprising nature of its origin, the number of local circumstances attached to its ancient history, the matchless beauty of its scenery, its extraordinary animal productions, the number of rare plants blooming amidst its towering precipices, its fleets and gondolas, towns, villages, groves, and gardens, the cemeteries of the dead, and the busy walks of the living, its painted villas, virandas, flowery terraces, domes, towers, quays, and mouldering edifices—all these in their turn excite and gratify curiosity; while the dress and manners of the inhabitants, contrasting the splendid costume and indolence of the east with the plainer garb and activity of the west, offer to the stranger an endless source of reflection and amusement.

It was near midnight when we returned from this excursion. On the following morning we determined to leave the *Moderato*, and proceed to Constantinople in one of the gondolas that ply in the canal for hire. These are more beautiful than the gondolas of Venice, and are often richly ornamented, although destitute of any covering. They are swifter than any of our boats upon the Thames; and this fact, I am told, has been ascertained by an actual contest between a party of Turkish gondoliers in their own boat, and a set of Thames watermen in one of their wherries. We passed the gorge of the canal, remarkable as the site of the bridge constructed by Darius for the passage of his numerous army; the grandeur of the scenery increasing as we approached the capital. The sides of the canal appeared covered with magnificent pavilions, whose porticoes, reaching to the water's edge, were supported by pillars of marble; when, all at once, the prospect of Constantinople, with the towns of Scutari and Pera, opened upon us, and filled our minds with such astonishment and admiration, that the impression can never be effaced. Would only, that the effect produced upon the mind could receive expression from the pen! As

nothing in the whole world can equal such a scene, it is impossible, by any comparison, to convey an idea of what we saw. Le Bruyn, one of the oldest European travellers, before the close of the seventeenth century, apologised for introducing a description of this astonishing sight, after the number of relations which other authors had afforded. What must then be the nature of an apology used by an author, who, at the beginning of the nineteenth, should presume to add one to the number? especially when it is added, that more has been written on the subject since the days of Le Bruyn, than in all the ages which had preceded him, from the earliest establishment of the Byzantine colonies to the time in which he lived. In the long catalogue thus afforded, no one has been more happy in his description of Constantinople than an author, who had himself no ocular demonstration of the veracity of his remarks.* The Turkish squadron, returned from a summer cruise, were, when we arrived, at anchor off the point of the seraglio. One of the ships, a three-decker, the construction of a French engineer of the name of Le Brun, surprised us by its extraordinary beauty and the spleudour of its appearance. Its guns were all of polished brass; and its immense ensign, reaching to the surface of the water, was entirely of silk.

After what has been said of the external magnificence of this wonderful city, the reader is perhaps ill prepared for a view of the interior; the horror, the wretchedness, and filth, of which are not to be conceived. Its streets are narrow, dark, ill paved, and at the same time full of holes and ordure. In the most abominable alleys of London or Paris, there is nothing so disgusting. They more resemble the interior of common sewers than public streets. The putrifying carcases of dead dogs, with immense heaps of dung and mud, obstruct a passage through them. From the inequalities and holes in the narrow causeway, it is almost impossible to proceed without danger of putting an ankle out of joint. We landed at Galata, in the midst of dunghills; on which a number of large, lean, mangy dogs, some with whelps, wallowing in mire, and all covered with filth and slime, were sprawling or feeding. The appearance of a *Frank*† instantly raises an alarm among these animals, who never bark at the Turks; and as they were roused by our coming on shore, the noise became so great that we could not hear each other speak. To this clamour were added the bawlings of a dozen porters, vociferously proffering their services, and beginning to squabble with each other as fast as any of them obtained a burden. At length we were able to move on, but in such confined, stinking, and yet crowded lanes, that we almost despaired of being able to proceed. The swarm of dogs, howling and barking, continually accompanied us, and some of the largest attempted to bite. When we reached the little inn of Pera, where a few small rooms, like the divisions in a rabbit-hutch, had been prepared for our reception, we saw at least fifty of these mongrels collected round the door in the yard, like wolves disappointed of their prey. The late storms had unroofed several of the houses in Pera, and that in which we lodged was among the number; one corner of it had been carried away by the wind, so that, without climbing to the top for a view of the city, we commanded a fine prospect of the Golden Horn, and part of Constantinople, through the walls of our bed-rooms, which were open to the air. Pera had recently suffered in consequence of a conflagration, which had nearly consumed every house in the place. There was reason to believe some improvement would take place during its restoration, but we found it rising from its ashes like a new phœnix, without the slightest deviation from the form and appearance of its parent. The exception only of one or two houses formerly of wood and rebuilt with stone might be noticed; but all the rest were as ugly, inconvenient, and liable to danger, as before; and were it not for a few workmen employed in fronting the houses of the merchants, no stranger could discover that any accident had taken place.

Considering the surprising extent of the city and suburbs of Constantinople, the notions entertained of its commerce, and the figure it has long made in history, all the conveniences, if not the luxuries, of life might be there expected. Previous to an arrival, if any inquiry is made of merchants, and other persons who have visited the place, as to the commodities of its markets, the answer is generally characterised by exaggeration. They will affirm, that every thing a stranger can require may be purchased in Constantinople as in London, Paris, or Vienna; whereas, if truth be told, hardly any one article good in its kind can be procured. Let a foreigner visit the bazars, properly so called, he will see nothing but slippers, clumsy boots of bad leather, coarse muslins, pipes, tobacco, coffee, cooks' shops, drugs, flower-roots, second-hand pistols, poignards, and the worst manufactured wares in the world. In Pera, where Greeks and Italians are supposed to supply all the necessities of the Franks, a few pitiful stalls are seen, in which every thing is dear and bad. Suppose a stranger to arrive from a long journey, in want of clothes for his body, furniture for his lodgings, books or maps for his instruction and amusement, paper, pens, ink, cutlery, shoes, hats—in short, those articles which are found in almost every city of the world—he will find few or none of them in Constantinople, except of a quality so inferior as to render them incapable of answering any purpose for which they were intended. The few commodities exposed for sale are either exports from England, unfit for any other market, or, which is worse, German and Dutch imitations of English manufacture. The woollen cloths are hardly suited to cover the floor of their own counting-houses; every article of cutlery and hardware is detestable; the leather used for shoes and boots so bad that it can scarcely be wrought; hats, hosiery, linen, buttons, buckles, are all of the same character—of the worst quality, and yet of the highest price. But there are other articles of merchandise, to which we have been accustomed to annex the very name of Turkey, as if they were the peculiar produce of that country, and these at least a foreigner expects to find; but not one of them can be had. Ask for a Turkish carpet, you are told you must send for it to Smyrna; for Greek wines—to the Archipelago; for a Turkish sabre—to Damascus; for the sort of stone expressly denominated *turquoise*—they know not what you mean; for red leather—they import it themselves from Russia or from Africa; still you are said to be in the centre of the commerce of the world: and this may be true enough with reference to the freight of vessels passing the Straits, which is never landed. View the exterior of Constantinople, and it seems the most opulent and flourishing city in Europe; examine its interior, and its miseries and deficiencies are so striking, that it must be considered the meanest and poorest metropolis of the world. The ships which crowd its ports have no connection with its welfare: they are for the most part French, Venetian, Ragusan, Sclavonian, and Grecian vessels, to or from the Mediterranean, exchanging the produce of their own countries for the rich harvests of Poland; the salt, honey, and butter of the Ukraine; the hides, tallow, hemp, furs, and metals of Russia and Siberia—the whole of which exchange is transacted in other ports, without any interference on the part of Turkey. Never was there a people in possession of such advantages, who either knew or cared so little for their enjoyment. Under a wise government, the inhabitants of Constantinople might obtain the riches of all the empires of the earth. Situated as they are, it cannot be long before other nations, depriving them of such important sources of wealth, will convert to better purposes the advantages they have so long neglected.

* History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.

† The name applied to every Christian in the Levant, of whatsoever nation.

[Here Dr Clarke's narrative of his travels terminates, and we add the following account of certain places of importance not visited by him, beginning with a sketch of the ancient kingdom of Poland.]

PLACES OF IMPORTANCE NOT VISITED BY DR CLARKE.

POLAND.

The ancient republic of Poland, it is well known, was divided by Russia, Austria, and Prussia, in the reign of Catherine II., and only a small portion of it was left independent. The portion of Poland appropriated by Catherine was incorporated into the Russian empire, and has, from that period, been governed by the Russian laws. It was designated Russian-Poland, and was divided into eight governments, the united population of which amounted to about 8,000,000. These governments were respectively Wilna, Grodno, Minsk, Volhynia, Podolia, Kijovia, Mohilev, Witebsk, with the province of Bialystok. That part of Poland which was not seized by the three powers, became known as the kingdom of Poland, and though left nominally independent, was annexed to the Russian crown. It consisted of the following palatinates, each of which had its chief city. These were:—

Mazovia,	Warsaw,	chief city,	with a population of	750,000
Kalisz,	Kalisz,	—	—	530,000
Sandomir,	Radone,	—	—	350,000
Lublin,	Lublin,	—	—	450,000
Podlachia,	Siedlce,	—	—	350,000
Plock,	Plock,	—	—	420,000
Augustov,	Lomza,	—	—	450,000

This part of Poland enjoyed many peculiar privileges. The Russian emperor was crowned at Warsaw as king of Poland; the diets of the nobility were still held, in which freedom of speech was permitted, and the viceroy was a native Pole. The present emperor, Nicholas, as well as his predecessor, took an oath to maintain the independence and rights of Poland, and its frontiers towards Russia were guarded, as if they had abutted on a hostile country. Since the unsuccessful revolution of 1830, the aspect of affairs has been entirely changed. Poland has been treated as a conquered province, and its nationality utterly annihilated. The Emperor Nicholas declared, by a ukase, that Poland had ceased to exist as a kingdom, and "that its inhabitants form but one nation with Russians, bound together by uniform and national sentiments." The diet was abolished, the Russian language substituted for the Polish in the tribunals, the University of Warsaw was closed, with the exception of the medical, theological, and astronomical classes, and its valuable collections of books, manuscripts, and medals, were carried off to Petersburg. The declaration of the emperor, in excuse for this spoliation, was characteristic of the feelings which actuated him throughout:—"As the Russian troops took Warsaw by force of arms, all those articles belong to her by right of war."

The government of the country, since that event, has been purely provincial, as in other parts of the empire. Its situation may be described as very miserable, its inhabitants being singularly poor, and solely engaged in agriculture. It is capable of growing an immense quantity of corn of the finest quality, but it is seldom there is any demand for it. A great deal of Polish wheat has been occasionally shipped to England at the ports of Danzig and Königsberg, but it is only in seasons of scarcity that such an outlet presents itself. It is stated that the emperor has prohibited Polish produce from being sent to Prussia, intending to make his own port of Riga the place of future shipment when the occasion arises.

RIGA.

Riga, the capital of the province of Livonia, is second in importance amongst the Russian ports. It is built on the banks of the Duna, nine miles from its embouchure into the Baltic. It is approached, from the south, by a floating bridge of pontoons 2600 feet in length, and 40 broad, which is removed in winter, when the river is frozen over. It being one of the three ports into which imports are permitted, it enjoys very considerable commerce, chiefly to and from Great Britain. The number of vessels frequenting Riga, amount annually to about 1500, taking cargoes of grain, hemp, wax, flax, tallow, and timber. A considerable trade, and one extremely beneficial to the town, is that of masts procured from the interior. The burghers of Riga send persons, who are called mast-cutters, into the provinces, to mark the trees, which are purchased standing. The trees grow chiefly in the districts which border on the Dnieper, by which river they are sent up a considerable distance, thence transported 20 miles across to the Duna, where they are formed into floats of from 50 to 200 pieces, and thus descend the stream to Riga. The tree which produces the largest masts is the Scotch fir. The hemp shipped from Riga is considered superior to that of Petersburg, and is brought from the Ukraine.

The amount of customs levied at the port of Riga, is about 10,000,000 of roubles annually, and the population of the town is 45,000. A great number of English and other foreign merchants reside in, and carry on the foreign commerce of, the town. Riga itself does not possess many objects of interest, being more like one of the German commercial towns than a Russian. The harbour for the shipping is commodious, and the principal buildings of the town are the Town-House, the Exchange, the Government-Palace, a good many churches, the Citadel, and two well-provided arsenals. A singular old building is pointed out as being the first house that was built in Riga, and is as old as the foundation of the town, which occurred in the year 1201.

The inhabitants of Riga merited the thanks of the emperor, by the courageous and successful resistance they made to the French in 1812. At that period the suburbs of the town, with a vast quantity of stores, were voluntarily destroyed by the patriotic burghers, and have been rebuilt, with the assistance of the emperor. An immense extent of territory, finally wrested from Sweden in the year 1809, is called Finland. The interior of this country is not much known, having been seldom visited by travellers, but its general features are forests, lakes, and marshes. The coast is well lined with small ports, to which the native Finns resort, principally in the winter, where they barter their raw products for salt, tobacco, and a few other articles. These people are in a very rude and primitive state, though settled, and leading an agricultural life. In these respects they resemble the Laplanders, with whom it is probable they have a very close affinity in descent. Much disputation has occurred as to the race to which the Finns belong, and whence they originally came. It is certain that they are neither Swedes nor Russians, and the only known language to which the Finnish has any similitude is the Hungarian, though how any connection could exist between the two people is as yet unexplained. But from this circumstance, as well as the general outline of their features, it may be assumed, with sufficient certainty, that the Finns are a Tartar race.

FINLAND.

Finland is divided into seven provinces, of which the Archipelago of the Aland Islands, about eighty in number, forms one, and the rest are Finland proper, East Bothnia, Towastland, Nyland, Sawolax, and Keymenegard. The inhabitants are not computed at above a million and a half. Whilst Finland formed part of Sweden, Abo was the capital of the country. At that period it was a flourishing town, containing 20,000 inhabitants, and driving a considerable foreign commerce, for which it is well calculated, the river Aeura flowing through it into the Gulf of Bothnia. The University of Abo, though so distant a seat of learning, was distinguished in Europe by the labours and reputation of several of its professors, especially of Porthan, whose works have done so much to illustrate the antiquities of Finland. A very old cathedral, built of brick, was one of the most prominent objects in Abo, and is celebrated for containing the tomb of Catherine, the wife of the unfortunate Eric XIV.

A terrible conflagration which occurred in the year 1827, almost entirely destroyed the town of Abo, whose history, from an early period, is full of similar disas-

ters. This last one, however, has been signally prejudicial, as it has, in consequence, lost its distinction as the capital of Finland. Its population has likewise dwindled, until at present it barely musters 10,000. Helsingfors has become the favourite object of the imperial government, and has been raised, from a small town of wooden huts, to a large and well-built city. Its situation is nearer to Petersburg by 150 miles, and is certainly very well adapted for commerce, having a very fine inner harbour, with a safe roadstead. The communication with the interior is also much facilitated by very excellent roads. Some of the buildings which have been erected since the Russian emperor took Helsingfors into his favour, are very splendid. The Senate-House, Government-Palace, and other public offices, are built in the Ionic style, and, being stuccoed, have a magnificent appearance. The University, which has been transferred here from Abo, is likewise a very handsome building. The celebrated fortress of Sveaborg is situated in the Gulf opposite to, and about three miles and a half from, Helsingfors. It is built on several small islands, three of which are joined by bridges. It was erected by the Swedes in 1748, and is, both naturally and artificially, a very strong fortification. It contains dock-yards, and other naval establishments, and is capable of holding sixty sail of the line. There are accommodations also for 12,000 troops, and it is defended by several hundred cannons.

Helsingfors, as a commercial place, is rising in importance. Its exports are principally planks, salt fish, and tar, and its imports, colonial produce, manufactured goods, &c. The other principal towns of Finland are Wasa, and Tornea, situated on the river Tornea, at the northern extremity of the Gulf of Bothnia. Tornea is celebrated as the place where Maupertuis measured a degree of longitude, and where the sun is seen at midnight in June. On the Gulf of Finland, Wyborg is the principal Finnish port.

Since Finland became part of the Russian empire, it has been treated with great consideration by the government. The revenue of the country is scrupulously spent within it, and the natives fill the principal government offices. The internal tranquillity of the country has been preserved, and its outward commerce considerably promoted. The religion of the natives, which is principally Lutheran, in accordance with the usual tolerance of the Russian government, has not been interfered with. The inhabitants are therefore quite contented with their transfer from the Swede to the Muscovite, and are even stated to be rejoiced at the change.

The costume of the Finnish peasants is described by Mr Elliot, who had been many years in Bengal, to have reminded him of the Asiatic mode of dress—a further corroboration of their Tartaric origin. It is composed of a long loose robe of coarse woollen, tied round the waist by a band of serge, of linen trousers, and exceedingly wide and cumbrous boots, with a broad-brimmed hat. Their appearance is by no means prepossessing; their hair, which hangs over the ears and down the forehead, being uncombed and very filthy. The back of the head and the neck are left bare, but the beard is unshaven. Their principal occupation, in addition to the pursuit of an imperfect agriculture, is fishing. It has been somewhat fancifully concluded, that their appellation of Finns, or Fins, is derivable from that circumstance.

ARCHANGEL.

Archangel is the most northern of the European provinces of Russia, and also the most extensive. It covers an area of 164,000,700 English acres, of which all but 700,000 acres are wood and water. It contains 218,000 inhabitants, the great majority of whom are Russians, forming the stationary population, and about 10,000 Samoiedes, and 2000 Laplanders, with a few scattered Finns. The Samoiedes are a singularly wild and hardy race, braving the inclemency of the weather in an unparalleled manner. Their appellation is stated to signify "eaters of one another," though there seems no foundation for branding them as cannibals. They are of middling stature, and are the same race as the Samoiedes of Siberia, who are much more numerous. Missionaries have been sent amongst them; and in 1825 an imperial ukase was promulgated, by which their conversion to Christianity was ordered to be effected by force, if persuasion was found ineffectual. Their means of subsistence are principally derived from the breeding of the rein-deer, of which they possess many tame flocks, by fishing, and by hunting wild animals. Their tribute to the autocratic government is rendered in furs and hides.

The government of Archangel includes Russian Lapland, the Island of Nova Zembla, together with other islands in the frozen ocean. It is divided into eight circles, and the city of Archangel is the capital, and only town of importance in the government. This city is situated on the river Dwina, forty miles before it falls into the White Sea. Archangel is particularly celebrated in the annals of British commerce for being the first inlet by which an intercourse was opened with Russia. In the year 1553, Richard Chancellor, who commanded a vessel sent out with two others from England, to discover a north-eastern passage to China, took refuge on the coast of the White Sea. From thence he travelled to the court of Ivan Vassilievitch IV., whose name has been since so execrated in history, who received him in a very friendly manner. The tzar (for he was the first of the Russian grand dukes who assumed that title) conceived the importance of maintaining an intercourse with such bold navigators, and gave orders for founding the city of Archangel. This, therefore, was the first port in the Russian empire, and for upwards of a century the only one. From its first foundation, the English established a factory there, and enjoyed privileges from which other nations were excluded. The commerce carried on by them was of a very lucrative nature, and Archangel itself rose to great importance, the first blow to the extension of which was the building of St Petersburg. Since that event, the flow of Russian commerce has been principally through the Baltic, though Archangel still maintains considerable rank as a commercial port.

Its trade is confined to the products of the northern parts of Russia, including Siberia, which are fish, fish oils, tallow, timber wrought and unwrought, pitch, tar, wax, iron, lintseed, furs, hides, tongues, and bristles. When the navigation is open, the appearance of the town, and of the roads leading to it, is most lively and animated. The port is filled with shipping, and the roads are crowded with carts, waggons, and travellers from Siberia, and other distant parts of the Russian empire. The number of foreign vessels entering the port annually, averages from 1831 to 1835, 336, of which 256 are British. In the year 1836, 299 vessels entered, 241 of which were British. The value of the imports into Archangel was in 1836 £50,102, of which £42,566 was imported from Great Britain. The value of the exports in the same year was £430,634, of which £407,738 was to Great Britain. Water communication has been opened with Moscow and Petersburg, though that, perhaps, is but of little importance, since the rivers are frozen the greater part of the year. The Dwina at Archangel is frozen in October, and is not again opened until April. All the rivers to the north-eastward, between the rivers Mezen and Petshora, are frozen by September, and are rarely liquid before May, whilst so intense becomes the cold, towards the frontier of Siberia, that no stream is open from the Petshora eastwards, until June, the winter embracing nine months of the year. The settled population of Archangel was in 1830, 20,697, including a good many British, Dutch, and German merchants. The town is seated on a low flat, and extends nearly two miles on the right bank of the river. It is almost entirely built of wood, the streets themselves being paved with that material. The houses of the principal merchants have double cases, as a preservative against the cold, and, being painted, have a neat and comfortable aspect. The shops are collected together, as in most other towns in Russia, and surrounded by a high wall with six towers and a

ditch. There are eleven churches, ten for the Greek, and one for the Protestant ritual. Its educational institutions are a gymnasium, elementary and ecclesiastical schools, and colleges for navigation and engineering. It is the seat of an archbishop, and the residence of a civil and a military governor.

In the neighbourhood of the town are some sugar-refineries, and manufactories of canvass and cordage for ships and boats, a good many of which are built on the banks of the river, whilst eleven miles below the town are slips for building ships of war. In the stream of the Dwina, near to Archangel, is an island called Solanobalsk, which contains an admiralty and marine barracks, and a few miles down the river is a fortress which defends the approach to the town.

There is a commercial company established at Archangel, called the White Sea Company, which sends out vessels every year to Nova Zembla and Spitzbergen, for the purpose of catching seals, sea-cows, and morse, and hunting the polar bear, fox, and rein-deer. The parties composing these excursions generally pass the winter in these frozen regions, taking wood with them to build cabins and for fuel.

Archangel being in the sixty-fifth degree of north latitude, it is under the line at which the growth of corn and vegetables ceases, nor can pasturage be procured for cattle. The inhabitants are therefore compelled to draw their supplies from a distance, though, from the cheapness and facility of transport, provisions are by no means dear.

SIBERIA.

Siberia, about which so much is said in Russian annals, as the ruthless land of exile, was conquered by Yermak, a robber chief, under the reign of Ivan IV., to whom Yermak submitted his conquest. His first invasion took place in 1578; and from that period the Russians have stretched their dominion to the shores of the Pacific, and even to the continent of America. Siberia formed, at one time, a single government, the capital of the whole country being Tobolsk. It is now divided into Eastern and Western Siberia, Tobolsk being the capital of Western Siberia, in which are included the districts and towns of Tomsk and Omsk. Eastern Siberia, of which the capital is Irkutsk, includes the districts of Yenisseisk, Yakutsk, Okhotsk, and Kamtchatka. A governor-general resides at each of the chief towns of Tobolsk and Irkutsk.

Tobolsk is a large city, seated at the junction of the Tobol and Irtish, which afterwards fall into the Ob, which flows into the frozen ocean. The inhabitants are estimated at 20,000, composed of Russians, Tartars, and Bucharians. It is the seat of a considerable trade, being the centre of communication for central Siberia. An archbishop resides in Tobolsk, whose ecclesiastical jurisdiction extends over all Siberia. There are a good many churches in the town, which, together with the residences of the archbishop, governor-general, and principal officers of the government, are in the upper part of the city. The markets and bazars are well supplied with provisions, which are sold at a very cheap rate. None of the convicts or malefactors who are exiled for crime, are allowed to remain in Tobolsk; but that privilege is granted to political exiles, who at one time formed a numerous body, but have in recent times been less plentiful. The society of the town, for one so distant from European civilisation, and in so inhospitable a region, is polite and animated.

The climate of Western Siberia is cold and cheerless, the southern part alone producing grain. The northern parts, which are covered with immense tracts of sand, are inhabited by Samoiedes and Ostiaks, races equally wild and barbarous, who live by fishing and hunting, scarcely requiring fuel even in the depth of winter. At Tobolsk itself, fishing is a very active pursuit, employing 2000 people on the Irtish and Tobol. The practice of these people is to ascend the river before the commencement of winter, catching and drying the fish as they go, and returning to Tobolsk with the breaking-up of the ice.

Irkutsk, the other capital city of Siberia, is situated considerably to the east of Tobolsk, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants. Several merchants reside here, who carry on trade with all the north-eastern and eastern parts of Siberia and China, conveying the merchandise there acquired to Nijni Novgorod, and other parts of Russia. The people are considered wealthy, living in large houses, and giving very handsome entertainments. The society of Irkutsk, composed of civil and military officers and merchants, is described as agreeable and pleasant, each individual endeavouring, by hospitality and cheerfulness, to render the desert as full of comfort as possible.

Throughout Siberia are distributed Cossacks, who are stated to be descendants of the companions of Yermak, the original conquerors of Siberia. These Cossacks are all employed as soldiers, and serve to keep in awe both the convicts and the aborigines. Without them, in fact, it is very questionable whether Russia could preserve her dominion in the country. The number of convicts actually in Siberia, it is, of course, impossible to ascertain; but the annual increase is 6000, or 100 male convicts, and 20 female, weekly. They are scattered in the different mines, distilleries, and other government works, from Ekaterineburg just east of the Oural mountains, as far as Yakutsk and Okotsk, on the Pacific. In this range there are gold, silver, iron, and copper mines, the principal localities of which are Ekaterineburg, Barnboule, and Nertchinsk. The situation of the convicts depends, in a great measure, upon the superintending officers in each establishment; but it is the duty of the governor of every government, as well as of the governor-generals of the Siberias, to make continual tours of inspection, when the more deserving of the prisoners are frequently relieved from labour in the mines, and even get small grants of land, but are never permitted, without special licence, to reside in the towns.

The aborigines of Siberia are divided into several distinct tribes. Towards the south, between Tobolsk and the Caspian Sea, are the Kirguise and the Calmucks. The Kirguise are found scattered along the banks of the Irtish beyond Omsk, and are divided into three separate hordes, having each its chief, though tributary to Russia. They are occupied entirely in hunting, fishing, and breeding cattle, of which they have immense droves. A considerable trade is carried on with them, and also with the Calmucks, in the shape of bartering tobacco and spirits for their cattle. The principal seat of such traffic is Omsk; and such is the passion of these tribes for tobacco and spirits, that they often sell their children as slaves for a small quantity of either. They are in return accused of kidnapping and selling Christians, whenever they can do so with impunity, and they are likewise described as prone to larceny. They are essentially a wandering people, roaming about in search of forage, and in winter encamping near the woods for the advantage of fuel. They are in their persons extremely filthy, and the furniture of their tents is meagre and wretched. They, however, evince their Tartaric descent by their skill in horsemanship.

In the northern part of Siberia, west of the river Kolyma, stretching from Irkutsk to the frozen ocean, are the Tongousi and the Yakuti. The Tongousi are divided into the forest and desert tribes, the former occupying themselves in fishing and the chase; the latter subsist entirely by the breeding of rein-deer, wandering from pasture to pasture, with their flocks and tents. They are chiefly idolators, a few of them having received a nominal baptism, and they speak, as it is said, the Mantshur dialect. The Yakuti are equally wild and barbarous, and are distinguished for their extraordinary gormandising powers. It is stated, upon the authority of the Russian Admiral Sariteheff, that a Yakut will consume, in the space of twenty-four hours, the hind quarter of a large ox, twenty pounds of fat, and a proportional quantity of melted butter, for his drink; and Captain Cochrane states that he has repeatedly seen one devour forty pounds of meat in a day, and that all substances, however putrid or unwholesome, are equally congenial to their appetites.

There is another tribe of the same people, called the Yukagiri, whose habits and mode of life are similar. They were at one time a very powerful and warlike race, but are now much reduced in numbers, and constitute a sort of neutral people between the Russians and the Tchuktchi.

The Tchuktchi inhabit the country east of the Kolyma, stretching along all the northern and north-eastern coasts, as far south as the bay of St Laurence. They are divided into three tribes, and live by breeding rein-deer, fishing, and hunting. Their whole number does not exceed 5000, and they are independent of the Russians, though a small *yasack*, or tribute, is levied at the time of the fairs which they hold annually with the Russians. These fairs are held at Anadyrsk, Idgiginsk, and Kolymsk. The traffic is entirely one of barter, the Russians bringing tobacco, kettles, knives, spears, needles, pipes, axes, and a few pieces of red and blue nankeen, and white cotton. The Tchuktchi merchandise consists of sea-horse teeth, bears' skins, rein-deer dresses, and white fox skins. A nation, called the Kargaules, from America, also frequent these fairs, and bring several thousands of black, brown, blue, red, and white fox skins, martins, beavers, otters, bears, wolves, sea-dogs, and sea-horse skins. The article most desired by these savages is tobacco, which they devour in every possible way.

The peninsula of Kamtchatka has been considerably colonised by the Russians, principally by sending convicts among the original Kamtchatdales. The town of St Peter and St Paul, a Russian station, is called the capital of the peninsula, and is the residence of a governor. The natives are a simple, harmless race, and their conquest by Russia has certainly not improved their condition. Their principal riches consist in the animals of the chase, of which there is a prodigious number, consisting of foxes of various colours, otters, and sables. The skins of these animals are brought by the natives, both as merchandise, and as tribute to the emperor. Great frauds are stated to be committed upon them by the Russians, with regard to the value of these skins. The passion of these unfortunate people for brandy is so excessive, that advantage is easily taken of them. Cochrane states, that every bottle of spirits sold to the Kamtchatdales produces the value of ten or twelve shillings; and that, when the party was drunk, he has seen three, and even four, sables given for two bottles of spirits. All the Russians in the peninsula, officers, soldiers, sailors, merchants, and priests, travel amongst the natives for the purpose of getting skins at this unjustifiable rate. The conversion of the natives to Christianity appears to have increased the evils of their situation, as they regard the priests with the same superstitious awe as they formerly did their *shamanes*, and these priests, in consequence, take the occasion of pilfering them of their most valuable furs in a shameless manner.

The native population of Kamtchatka under the Russian sway is rapidly diminishing, though they are now taught some of the arts of civilisation, and have begun to live in villages. In summer they dress in nankeens, and wear shirts, but in winter they revert to their ancient costume of the skins of beasts. The women have acquired a taste for finery, to gratify which they are well switched by the pedlars. The climate of Kamtchatka is not so severe as that of Siberia generally, the cold of winter seldom descending below 12 and 15 degrees of Reaumur. Yet the snow lies upon the ground from seven to eight months; and during the remaining four, the sun has so little effect upon the earth, that cultivation is entirely out of the question.

The most important foreign commerce carried on in Siberia, is that with the Chinese. With the usual caution of that people, there is only one point permitted alongst the extensive frontier between the two countries, for the purposes of trade. The Russian station is called Kiakhta, and the Chinese, a short distance from it, is called Maimatchin. At these respective places, the merchants of the two countries reside, and carry on their trade of barter. The Russian products are furs of all descriptions, and woollen cloths, and the Chinese give teas, cotton, nankeens, silks, and articles of curiosity. The value of the trade averages 30,000,000 of roubles annually. Between Irkutsk and Kiakhta, is a place called Selenginsk, which is a station of English missionaries, for the purpose of converting the Mongols and Buriats, in the surrounding districts.

SKETCH OF THE PRESENT POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

EXTENT AND POPULATION.

At the accession of Peter the Great to the throne of Russia, that country was scarcely known as a European power. Since that period, however, its progress in territorial aggrandisement has been very great. All its neighbours have been successively encroached upon, and many of them swallowed up. Sweden, Persia, and Turkey, have lost immense provinces, Poland has been annihilated, and numberless tribes, nomade and agricultural, have been rendered tributary. The frontiers of this extensive empire embrace one-half of Europe, the whole of Northern Asia, and part of America, comprising one-seventh of the habitable globe. The superficial area of this extended territory cannot be calculated with preciseness, but the following may be taken as the result of observations conducted with scientific skill and industry:—

Russia in Europe, including Russian Poland, and the islands of the Baltic, contains 2,078,646 English square miles. Siberia, under which designation are included the islands of the frozen ocean (except Nova Zembla), and of the Pacific Ocean, and the peninsula of Alyaska in North America, contains 4,866,643 English square miles. Nova Zembla, not being yet explored upon the southern coast, cannot be exactly measured, but is estimated at 83,271 English square miles. Thus the whole extent of the empire is 7,028,561 square miles, of which 1,364,815 are in the frigid, and 5,663,746 in the temperate zone.

The countries composing European Russia may be classed as follows:—Russia, properly so called, which forms the nucleus of the empire, and which is sometimes, though improperly, called Muscovy; the territories of the Don Cossacks, and those of the Black Sea; the former kingdoms of Kazan and Astrachan wrested from the Tartars; Biarmia; almost all Lapland, Ingria, Carelia, Finland, Ostro-Bothnia, Esthonia, Livonia, the Archipelagos of Abo and Alaud, with the Islands of Dago, Æsel, &c., all formerly belonging to Sweden; the largest portion of the once-independent kingdom of Poland, namely, the governments of Vitebsk, Moghilev, Minsk, Volhynia, Grodno, Vilna, Podolia, the province of Bialystock, and the duchy of Warsaw; the former khanate of the Crimea, Little Tartary, Bessarabia, and part of Moldavia conquered from the Turks; and Georgia, and the Caucasian countries north and west of the Caucasian range of mountains, conquered from the natives, the Turks and the Persians.

The following is an enumeration of the acquisitions of Russia within the last seventy years :—

	Inhabitants.
In 1770 she obtained Bessarabia, which contains - - -	500,000
1771 the Crimea, incorporated into the empire in 1783, - -	460,000
1785 Georgia, incorporated in 1831,	400,000
1793 Little Poland and the Ukraine,	6,500,000
1794 Western Russia, including Lithuania, Podolia, &c. - -	8,500,000
1795 Courland, - - -	400,000
1803 The Lesghis, and other Caucasian tribes, - - -	300,000
1809 Finland, - - - -	1,400,000
1813 Schirwau, - - -	140,000
1815 Kingdom of Poland (grand duchy of Warsaw), incorporated in 1832,	4,000,000
1827 Erivan and districts adjacent, -	150,000
1829 Turkish Armenia, and other cessions by Turkey, - - -	500,000
	23,250,000

It will be observed from this account, that the acquisitions of Russia have nearly equalled the present population of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, though the extent of acquisition is less than that of Great Britain in India during the same period of time.

The following is a translation from an official table of a census of the Russian empire, taken in the year 1836 :—

Russian priests, - - -	52,331
Deacons and sacristans, - - -	63,178
Male children of priests, deacons, and sacristans,	138,548
Total, - -	254,057
Priests of the united Greek and Roman church,	7,823
Catholic priests, - - - -	2,497
Armenian priests, - - - -	474
Lutheran priests, - - -	1,003
Reformed church, - - - -	51
Mahommedan mollahs, - - -	7,850
Lamas (Tartar), - - - -	150
Nobles :—	
Hereditary, - - - -	284,731
By virtue of service, &c. with their sons,	78,922
Petty officers who have left the army, and are employed in the civil service, &c.	187,047
Foreigners of all classes, - - -	22,114
In Military colonies, - - -	950,698
Inhabitants of towns :	
Merchants, - - - -	131,347
Shopkeepers, artisans, &c., - -	1,339,434
Citizens in the eastern provinces, -	7,535
Greeks of Nishnei, gunmakers of Toula, &c.	10,882
Citizens of Bessarabia, - -	57,905
Inhabitants of villages :	
Peasants (that is, slaves) the private property of the emperor and the imperial family, peasants annexed to the crown, &c. - - - -	10,441,339
Peasants the property of nobles, -	11,403,722
Wandering tribes :	
Kalmucks, Circassians, and Mahommedans of the Caucasus, - - -	245,715
Territory beyond the Caucasus :	
Georgia, Armenia, Mingrelia, &c., nearly	689,147
Poland, - - - -	2,077,311
Finland, - - - -	663,658
Russian colonies in America, -	30,761
Male population, -	28,896,223
Number of the female sex,	30,237,343
Grand total of both sexes,	59,133,566

In this number, however, the private soldiers of the army and navy, with their wives and children, are not included, so that the sum total, in round numbers, may be estimated at sixty-one millions. In addition to this must be reckoned the inhabitants of the mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian, 1,445,000 souls. There are also wandering tribes of Circassians and others, whom it is impossible to number. In short, the population of Russia may be stated in round numbers at about sixty-three millions.

This vast body of people consists of a number of distinct nations, tribes, and tongues, which have been classed and calculated by different writers. By far the greater number are Selavonians, who consist of six races, and comprehend the inhabitants of Russia, Poland, and Courland. They are estimated in round numbers at 44,000,000. The bulk of the population belongs to the Russo-Greek Church, the members of which amount to 45,000,000. The other religious persuasions will be seen from the foregoing table, and their relative numbers may be estimated by the number of the priests and other spiritual guides.

The population of Russia may be discriminated into the following classes :—firstly, nobles ; secondly, the clergy ; thirdly, the citizens, persons not noble, in the employment of government, and merchants ; fourthly, free peasants ; and fifthly, serfs of government, and serfs of individuals, sometimes called slaves, amongst whom we may reckon soldiers and sailors. Of the four first classes we shall speak presently. Let us first take a view of the condition of the great body of the people.

Of the Russian peasantry there are twenty-two millions of males, who are serfs, or slaves, to a certain extent ; that is, whilst they can be bought and sold like any marketable commodity, they at the same time enjoy certain inalienable rights and privileges. The crown-serfs and the private serfs stand on a different footing in some respects. The former are chiefly peasants on the crown lands, who either labour in the fields or in mines and manufactories. Their whole time is their own, and they may grow rich, attain the rank of citizens, and, under certain restrictions, may quit their residences to obtain employment for a limited time ; but still they are the property of the crown, and can be hired to the service of the mines, or sold. The private serfs are differently situated from the slaves of ancient times, for they are possessed of specific rights, some of which are guaranteed by law, and others have originated from custom. Whilst the law considers them as *things* attached to the soil, incapable of holding property in land, and liable to be sold, the law at the same time places at their disposal three of the working days of every week, and Sundays and holidays in addition. Their master is obliged to supply them with food and all other necessaries of life ; and in the event of the serf becoming a beggar, the master is liable to a fine. The footing on which they practically stand towards their master, is somewhat similar to that of small tenants ; the principal difference being that they cannot change their employment, or move from home, without their masters' leave. There may be exceptions to the general rule—particular cases of hardship and oppression—but still the custom followed in the country, in a vast majority of cases, is to allot to the peasants the half of the land which belongs to the owner of the estate, to defend them against all aggression and ill treatment at the hands of strangers, and strictly to respect their property. The exceptions to this mode of treating the serf are rare. In return, the serf gives the proprietor the labour of three days in the week, which also includes that of his wife and horse when requisite. For a certain annual sum called *obrock*, which is paid in lieu of service, the serf, with his proprietor's leave, can quit the estate if he chooses, and commence business on his own account. Not a few have speculated to some purpose in this manner, and acquired considerable wealth ; but this does not alter the original position in which they stood to their master ; they still remain his saleable property. These rights and privileges are certainly of great importance to the Russian peasant, and the system generally seems to

work well enough, seeing it is for the interest of the proprietor to keep his serfs hale and stout; but they are essentially slaves, a condition repulsive to human feeling, and destructive to the proper developement of the intellectual powers and the moral sentiments. Above all, it is subversive of every feeling of independence, and all ambition to excel and rise in the world; for how can such sentiments be generally cherished in a community where the very corner-stone of independence is wanting—personal freedom?

The free peasantry of the country are the ancient race of proprietors who cultivate their own lands—the Tartars, Baschkirs, and other races, to the south of Siberia; the inhabitants of old and new Finland; the colonists, consisting of foreign families of agriculturists, chiefly German; military colonists, that is soldiers, who, having served a prescribed period, have had land given them; and, lastly, such free cultivators as enjoy an immunity from taxes for certain small services done to government. But this body of plebeian freemen bears but a small proportion to the bulk of the population. The clergy, like the nobles, are a class exempt from taxation, proscription, and corporal punishment, which privileges are extended to each eldest son, who must, however, though his father is excused, take the risk of being called upon for military service. The clergy may in some respects be classed with the nobles. They are treated of more at length in another place. The citizens form another and more distinct division of the Russian population. Every inhabitant of a town, who is neither noble, nor the property of another, is a citizen. The notables constitute the highest class amongst them, and possess great privileges. Next to these, come the merchants of the three guilds. The first or highest guild corresponds with the eighth class of rank, to which we shall allude presently, and enjoys most of the immunities of the notables. In fact, whoever has belonged ten years to the first guild, or twenty to the second, without incurring any visitation of the law, becomes a notable. It is unnecessary to specify in detail the other citizens.

GOVERNMENT.

The government of Russia is that of an absolute hereditary monarchy, where the arbitrary will of the sovereign is the supreme law of the land. No restraint can be imposed on it except voluntarily; and the emperors themselves have partially qualified their unlimited power, which is further moderated by rights and privileges enjoyed in certain parts of the empire, and on which no monarch could infringe with impunity. The highest department of government is the council of the empire, which is divided into four grand branches, namely, legislation, the highest and last court of judicature in every case of justice, secular and ecclesiastical; war power, both on sea and land; civil and ecclesiastical affairs; and internal political economy, such as matters of finance, trade, manufactures, agriculture, science of medicine, public instruction, and so forth. The emperor himself is president of the council, and in his absence, one of the members, whom he formally appoints president every year, takes his place. Each department has its president, and the whole an imperial secretary, who is the organ through which the council of the empire makes known its deliberations to the monarch, and the monarch his decisions to the council, or to individual departments. He likewise expedites all the orders of the council to the respective authorities who are to execute them, and receives all petitions, &c., directed to the emperor. Each department has its secretary, who has a seat in the council of the empire, but is disqualified from being president of a department. The election of members to the departments takes place half yearly. The original outline of every law, ordinance, or regulation, is laid before the council of the empire, who examine it; but the sovereign power alone can give it efficiency. There are three commissions in connection with the council of the empire; these are, commissions of law, petitions, and the chancery of the empire. Each commission has a director, and is distributed into several sections, over each of which a head presides. The present council of the empire consists of forty members, who are as follow:—The ministers, who are eleven in number; the presidents and secretaries of the four departments, eight in all; the three directors of the commissions; the minister for Poland, for that unhappy country has a secretary of state who manages its affairs; sixteen members who only take their places in a full assembly, and appear to consist of individuals chosen by the emperor from amongst persons of rank and distinction in the country, officers of the army and navy, and the like; and, lastly, the nominal president. The real president is the emperor, who, indeed, is the unit who gives all the ciphers power and value. Such is the constitution of the Russian council of the empire.

The managing or executive senate is the highest authority in all home affairs, as contradistinguished from those of a foreign description. The emperor is also president of this body. As guardian of the law, he watches over the administration of justice, superintends the income and expenditure of the state, looks after the means of national instruction, the preservation of public security, the abolition of every illegal proceeding. The minister of justice is always proctor or attorney-general; the other members are undetermined, but they partly consist of the ministers of state. The senate is divided into eight departments, five of which have their constant seat at St Petersburgh and three at Moscow. This senate, being either directly or indirectly appointed by the emperor, and having, besides, no independent authority to act, cannot be looked upon as much better than an organ for promulgating his decrees. The holy governing synod has for its object the management of ecclesiastical business. It watches over the affairs of the church, but it is as dependent as the others, for its decrees are issued in the name of the emperor. The ministries of state, whose members officiate in their several departments independently of each other, but sit together in the council of the empire and of the senate, and to the latter annually render an account of their stewardship, are distributed into three sections. The first section consists of the ministries of foreign affairs; war; the marine; the interior, which comprehends the departments of the administration of the revenue, the police, public health or medicine, and also, as appears from the Weimar almanack, that which takes cognisance of such ecclesiastical affairs as belong to other religious creeds than that of the established church; public instruction for the governance of universities, academies, learned societies, gymnasia, schools, and for the revision of all books designed for the same; and the minister of finance, who has the principal direction of the revenues, and yearly lays before the emperor a balance-sheet of the income and expenditure. He is also the highest authority in matters relative to trade, manufactures, customs, banks, mines, and the demesnes of the empire. The second section consists of the treasury of the empire, into which all the revenues flow, and from which all payments are made, according to the immediate orders of the emperor. Those who officiate in this section are under the surveillance of the minister of finance. And to the third section belong the business of state accounts, the general direction of land and water communication, and the ministry of justice. Amongst other state officials of high dignity, may be mentioned the controller of the empire, the head of the post-office, and of the management of roads and public buildings. To all the various ministers the necessary information is weekly sent from each of the fifty-one governments and eleven provinces into which the empire is divided; the whole intelligence being annually laid before the monarch in a definite form. The governors and other authorities in the provinces hold their command through the ministers. Each government has a civil governor, who is usually war-governor at the same time, but occasionally the offices are separated. Of course, there is under these the

customary train of functionaries for the management of local affairs.

In so extensive an empire as Russia, the evils of the governing power being vested solely in one person, are multifarious. No means of redress against tyranny and extortion are open, save by appeal to the emperor through functionaries interested to conceal from him the real state of administration. No public remonstrance or discussion is permitted, for the press is so vigilantly guarded that the art of printing is in this respect entirely useless. Petitions may be forwarded to the emperor in person, but coming from a distance, it is not possible he can ascertain their truth without inquiries from the very persons whose conduct is impugned. The proverb which is in common use amongst Russian officials, especially in the provinces, at once shows the disregard in which threats of appeals to the emperor are held. "God is high, and the emperor far away," is their insulting observation to remonstrants. It is perfectly notorious, that in every department of the internal administration of Russia, bribery and corruption prevail, to an extent unparalleled in any other country. The main cause of this is doubtless owing to the extremely low salaries attached to all official situations in Russia, which render it impossible for those holding them to live in any degree commensurate with their station. Hence the crime of receiving bribes is considered perfectly venial, and ranges from the top to the bottom of every institution. Even the tribunals of justice are moved to their decisions by such appliances, instances of which are given by Mr Lyall in his "Character of the Russians."

The late Emperor Alexander was at length convinced of the existence of this evil, as well as of many others in the civil administration, and he hoped, by personal peregrinations through his dominions, to check the officials in their rapacity and tyrannical conduct. Upon one occasion, nearly 500 persons connected with the government of Siberia were imprisoned and degraded, from information given by the governor, General Speranskii. But the scheme of Alexander, of visiting the distant provinces of the empire, though good in intention, was found to entail greater evils than those he was labouring to put down. Without the personal superintendance of the emperor, no affairs can be transacted, and the delays and inconveniences to which the protracted absence of Alexander exposed all persons connected with or dependent upon the government, excited very great discontents. Besides, reformation was not at all popular amongst influential people, and a conspiracy was the consequence of the emperor's project. His death at Taganrog, on the Sea of Azof, prevented his assassination, and, as it is alleged, of the whole imperial family. Such has been, and will be, the fate of every sovereign who attempts, with any thing bordering upon precipitation, to introduce innovations into Russia.

The progress of such a country in the arts of civilisation must necessarily be slow, because every thing depends upon the government, or, in other words, upon the personal character of the emperor. There is no public opinion, no public spirit, to push on or excite the endeavours of individuals. No scheme can be entered upon, no improvement effected, until the mind of the emperor is awakened to its propriety and importance. It is well known that the persons by whom monarchs are surrounded are the last upon whom inventors and projectors make any impression. Hence it is the characteristic mark of a despotic monarchy that its subjects remain stationary for ages, whilst the natives of freer states are perpetually pushing forward in the career of improvement. The remark is, however, not completely applicable to Russia, since her sovereigns have, from the time of Peter I., laboured with great assiduity to introduce an extended system of civilisation into the country. But their efforts have necessarily had only partial consequences. The nobility have improved, but the great body of the people remain in the same state. The almost total absence of a middle class is the great drawback of Russia, for it is in that portion of a community that the true spirit of enterprise and social advancement is displayed.

LAWS—PUNISHMENTS—POLICE.

The civil and criminal codes of Russian laws are very imperfect, notwithstanding the efforts which several successive sovereigns have made to introduce order and certainty. A collection of all the ukases, rules, ordinances, &c., in vigour in Russia, which in 1830 amounted to forty-five volumes, systematically arranged in distinct codes, and altogether forming a single body of laws for the empire, became the standard code of Russia in the beginning of 1835. Amongst the particular laws, the ukase of 1822, abolishing the practice of branding after the administration of the knout, deserves particular mention. With regard to the constitution of the various courts of justice throughout the empire, it is necessary to state, that however sufficient for the ends of justice the organised system may be, abstractedly considered, in its practical operation it is rendered often nugatory, and at all times very uncertain, by the universal prevalence of bribery. With the courts themselves, and the system organised for the administration of the laws, we have no particular fault to find, although they are certainly susceptible of improvement. It is the working of the system of jurisprudence that we must be understood as condemning. The talisman of gold too often "makes justice break her sword;" nor will matters be much improved until the mass of the people shall have more power. Then public opinion will be openly expressed; and as we are far from thinking that the moral principle is abstractly lower amongst the Russian people than it is in many other countries where no such gross abuses as those alluded to prevail, then right, justice, and truth will be recognised as the principles which ought to regulate the conduct of all public functionaries; and where these are disregarded, reprobation and punishment will follow. If masses of mankind are allowed the free exercise of opinion, a love of justice will every where be found a strong feature of the human character. With regard to the punishment of crime in Russia, capital punishment was nominally abolished by Elizabeth, one of the most licentious women that ever wore a crown; but in reality it was often inflicted, and in a more dreadful manner than by the axe or the rope. That horrible instrument called the knout, was often then and since administered in such a manner as to produce death; however, it is no longer allowed to be inflicted to the taking away of life. After the knout, banishment to Siberia is the next penalty inflicted for high crimes and misdemeanors. This punishment has long been notorious for the terrors which invest it, and has given rise to many a tale of love, and woe, and pity, which adorns the literature of many languages. Which of the two is worst and most to be execrated, whether being scourged until the vital flame is nearly extinguished, and the body crippled for life, or being driven like cattle, in the depth of winter sometimes, to regions of ice which no sun of summer melts, there to linger out in unwholesome mines "the bitter little that of life remains," we shall not presume to determine. To detail horrors which we have no means of mitigating, were to create unnecessary pain in the mind of the reader, and so let the curtain fall between us and those scenes of woe and desolation.

The police of Russia is a political body, and all travellers complain of its regulations as being formal and minute beyond any thing known in other European countries. Besides being remarkable for its searching system of espionage, it is extremely numerous, although, as we are informed by a very recent traveller, not more so "than in other kingdoms on the continent, where the system of form and routine is kept up; while the officials with which you are brought in contact, as far as my experience goes, although grossly venal, and taking bribes without the smallest attempt at concealment, are always disposed to treat a stranger with the

utmost courtesy. But in addition to these acknowledged servants of the state, there is a body of secret police, who are every where, and most certainly spy out all the ways of the stranger." The system of passports is of the most minute and annoying character; every resident foreigner must regularly renew his at stated intervals under pain of fine; and every servant changing place must have one. The police are excessively vigilant in securing all sorts of trespassers, even those who have only been guilty of an—accident. And here let us notice a most erroneous part of the Russian penal code, that of sentencing civil offenders of all kinds to serve as soldiers. If, for instance, a coachman unluckily drives over a person in the street, and only slightly bruises him, he is seized by the police, and made a soldier for life. When we reflect, that to be a soldier in Russia is to snap every tie of family affection, to surrender every previously cherished hope of advancement in life, and to enter on a career of the severest labour and privation, the horrible nature of this law is placed in a very conspicuous light. Thus the system for suppressing crime in Russia is an instrument of torture, as perfect in its way as any which the perverted ingenuity of man has devised.

MILITARY AND NAVAL POWER.

The enormous military power of Russia has excited serious apprehensions for the independence of Europe, and particularly for the commercial prosperity of Great Britain. The capacity of Russia to injure has been and yet remains a question of great importance. The army has been estimated as high as 1,000,000, and by some only at 800,000; but of this force it would not be possible for her to maintain more than 150,000 men beyond her own frontier. The extended territory she already possesses, and the number of subjects upon whose fidelity it would not be safe to rely, render it necessary to keep a large force within the empire. But the further aggrandisement of Russia in Europe must necessarily be considered an intolerable evil; and though there are many circumstances to prevent it, there are others which may promote it. But this is of course mere matter of speculation, which it is unnecessary to indulge in, in this place.

The expenses of the immense military establishment maintained by the Russian government, must necessarily be very considerable, but nothing in comparison to what it would cost in any other country. The pay and rations are upon the lowest possible scale, thereby enabling the emperor to indulge his propensity for seizing the possessions of other countries at a singularly low rate. But independently of this circumstance, so favourable to the Russian monarch, the wars that have recently occurred have actually brought large funds into the autocratic coffers. The sequestrated lands of the Polish exiles of 1830, and the millions paid by the exhausted treasuries of Persia and Turkey, have given additional means to Nicholas I., which, according to the latest travellers, he has not failed to use to good purpose.

The naval force of Russia, so great an object of interest with Peter the Great, and so long inferior both in point of numbers and character, is now placed upon a highly respectable footing. In 1838, the Baltic fleet consisted of thirty heavy line-of-battle ships, four of them three deckers; one razee of fifty-six guns; twenty-one frigates, and a number of corvettes, brigs, and smaller craft. The whole was manned by a force of 33,000 men. The fleet in the Black Sea at the same date consisted of sixteen heavy ships of the line, about half as many large frigates, and a number of corvettes, brigs, yachts, and other smaller armed vessels. On the Caspian Sea, there were also several ships of very considerable size, and more are in rapid progress at the building yards recently established at favourable points. Russia possesses at least sixty steam-boats of one kind or another; and the whole navy may be computed as manned by 60,000 men. The marine of Russia is therefore formidable in point of numbers, and it is admitted that it never was in such high condition as it is at the present time. But it is quite preposterous to look upon it in the light of a rival to that of Great Britain. The Russian sailor is brave, well trained, somewhat after a military fashion (for every thing gets that twist in Russia), and submissive; but he wants the activity, the enthusiasm, and the presence of mind of the British seaman. To remedy a great defect under which the Russian navy has long laboured, a want of good native officers, colleges of naval cadets have been formed, where young Russians are carefully trained for the higher branches of the service.

CURRENCY AND REVENUE.

Notwithstanding the gold and silver mines of Russia, the currency of the country is in a very unsatisfactory state. Scarcely any gold is to be seen, and the only silver coin is the rouble, and its aliquot parts of halves, quarters, tenths, and twentieths. The value of the silver rouble has fluctuated from fifty-two to thirty-six English pence. Its present value is about 3s. 6d. But it is by the paper circulation that transactions are carried on. At the first issue of notes, the paper rouble was of course intended to represent the silver coin of the same name, but it has gradually sunk in value until it now only equals one-fourth of the silver rouble. Its value fluctuates according to the rate of exchange, but upon the average, it is worth 10½d. of English money. Whenever roubles are mentioned in modern works, this rate is to be taken in turning them into sterling money. In Russia the piece of a quarter-rouble is paid for the rouble in paper. There is an immense copper circulation of copecks, one hundred of which equal a paper rouble; indeed, the only true metallic currency may be said to be copper. A coinage of platina was made at the mint, but owing to a sudden depreciation in the value of the metal, it has not been issued. The total amount of bank notes in circulation is nearly 600,000,000 of roubles, which has been for some years neither increased nor diminished. The affair of the paper currency is managed at the Assignattionnoi Bank in St Petersburg.

The revenue of Russia is derived from a capitation tax on serfs, and the *obrock*, or rent, of the crown peasants, from a monopoly of brandy and salt, from customs, the mines, the fisheries, the mint, stamps, and from the duty on merchants, who pay a tax on their capital according to the guild in which they are enrolled, and from various other sources. According to Schubert's reckoning, the income of the Russian empire for 1836 amounted to 354,268,000 paper roubles, or about £14,200,000 sterling. To the above may be added six millions of roubles as the produce of the gold and platina mines. The national debt absorbs but a comparatively small part of it; and from the measures which are yearly taken for its extinction, Russia will soon be entirely rid of that incubus of nations.

MINES AND FISHERIES.

The mines of Russia are a considerable source of wealth. They are almost wholly situated in the Asiatic part of the empire. The metallic and mineral produce consists of platina, gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, zinc, arsenic, bismuth, and precious stones. The veins of precious metal are found in the Oural and Altai chains of mountains. In the year 1836 the produce of all the Russian mines amounted to 223,080 ounces of gold, and 66,160 ounces of platina. We give this statement on the authority of a German traveller, who inspected the mines with great care.* The silver obtained may amount annually to 43,200 lbs.; the copper to 7,596,000 lbs.; and the lead to 1,440,000 lbs. By a document published in the Russian Mining Journal for 1830, we find that there were in the Oural districts alone fifty-eight smelting works, which, in 1827, produced 9,731,147 pouds of cast iron. To this is to be added, the produce of the iron mines of Finland and other places,

* Reise nach dem Ural, dem Altai, und dem Kaspischen Meere, Von Agustav Rose. Berlin, 1837.

which may amount to about 1,000,000 pouds. Precious stones of great value have been found from time to time, and diamonds have been gathered in the auriferous sands of the Oural, but they are small in size and few in number. Salt is produced to the extent of 22,000,000 pouds, and alum to the extent of 16,000 pouds, annually. Immense quantities of various kinds of fish are taken from the rivers, lakes, and seas, the annual value of which is estimated by M. Schnitzler at 10,000,000 roubles. The chase in the Russo North American colonies and elsewhere, has long been a profitable branch of national industry. Great quantities of the furs and skins of the otter, beaver, and fox, are annually brought to market by the traders.

TRADE, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURES.

The external commerce of Russia is very considerable. The principal country with which it is carried on is Great Britain. According to late parliamentary papers which we have consulted, in the year 1835 the total value of imports into Russia was £9,551,478, of which £3,122,025 was from Great Britain alone, and the rest from all the other trading countries in the world. In the same year, the value of exports from Russia was £9,364,059, of which £3,950,335 was sent to Great Britain. The principal articles of import from Great Britain are—cloth, cotton wool and yarn, cotton manufactures, coffee, drugs, indigo, lead, spices, sugar, silk, tobacco, wines, and woollen goods. The principal exports to Great Britain are—ashes, bristles, deals, flax, furs, hemp, hides, iron, lintseed, mats, sail-cloth, tallow, and wool; of tallow the exports are about one-half of the whole amount.

The revenue derived to the Russian government from commerce, was, in the year 1835, £3,486,420, of which the trade to and from Great Britain supplied £1,169,986.

The chief articles of export from Russia are—bristles, deals, flax, hemp, hides, lintseed, and tallow; and those of import are—cotton twist, cotton wool, cotton manufactures, indigo, sugar, silk, silk manufactures, tobacco, wine, and woollen manufactures.

The ports of Russia, at which foreign commerce is carried on, are—St Petersburg, Revel, and Riga, in the Baltic; Archangel, in the White Sea; and Odessa, in the Black Sea. Foreign merchants are the principal conductors of the external trade, and natives have the exclusive monopoly of the inland trade. By returns, in 1835, it appears that the British merchants resident in Russia, alone transacted business in that year to the extent of £6,005,406, exporting produce of the value of £3,062,821, and importing to the value of £2,942,585.

The trade of Russia with Great Britain has not increased, but rather diminished, of late years, whilst its trade with America has been greatly extended, as also its export trade with Turkey. France, Austria, Holland, and the Hanse towns, have also, to a small extent, increased their commercial interchange.

Besides the trade with foreign countries, there is considerable commerce carried on amongst the different parts of the empire; the number of coasting vessels in 1836 in the Baltic being 1125, and in the Black Sea 4356. The number of Russian vessels, clearing outwards for foreign ports, during the same year, was 942, the tonnage of which was 163,643.

The foreign merchants domiciliated in Russia form a distinct class, which formerly enjoyed exemption from taxation, but this privilege is now abolished. The native merchants, in each city, are divided into three guilds, according to their declared capital upon which they are taxed, and in respect of which they are exempted from military conscription. By the returns of 1829, the number of merchants in the first guild (capital 50,000 roubles) was 1497, in the second (capital 20,000 roubles) 3998, and in the third guild (capital 8000 roubles) 68,212, amongst whom were 7525 Jews, and 1050 Mahomedans. This was for the whole empire. The respective numbers have since increased, though the commercial community is doubtless very small, when compared with the extent of the empire.

The state of manufactures in the Russian empire may be thus summed up. In 1815, the total number of manufacturing establishments was estimated at 3250, which gave employment to 150,000 workmen. In 1836, the number of manufactories had increased to 6045, giving employment to 279,673 men. The whole produce of Russian manufactures amounted in 1831 to 509,574,379 roubles. Still, with the exception of some of its fabrics of iron and hardware, and of what may be termed its indigenous manufactures, such as sail-cloth, duck, sheeting, sack-cloth, and other coarse articles of flax and hemp, the manufactures of Russia are rude and imperfect. The distillation of brandy is by far the most extensive and lucrative branch of its productive industry; the annual value of that manufacture reaching 270,000,000 of roubles, for which the government obtains 90,000,000 in the shape of excise. The brandy monopoly of the government is productive of infinite mischief, since not only its own excessive profits are wrung from the peasantry, amongst whom the use of the liquor is universal, but, by the usual system of bribery, the actual tax upon the consumers is trebled and quadrupled. The brandy is adulterated by every hand through which it passes, and the peasant is served with so weak a spirit, that he necessarily swallows a great deal more than he otherwise would do.

In the government of Moscow several silk and cotton factories have been established, and great efforts have been made to render them of importance, in which some success has been attained. Several foreign artisans are engaged in these establishments, and every improvement which the ingenuity of English or French manufacturers has introduced in these fabrics is successfully adopted in Russia. In the various cotton factories of Moscow there are stated to be 60,000 looms, whilst the silk factories contain 16,000 looms, including upwards of 5000 of the Jacquard looms introduced since 1827. Cotton yarn forms a material item of the British imports into Russia, amounting in value to £2,000,000 annually. A considerable portion of the raw silk used is brought from her own provinces beyond the Caucasus.

The government is making great efforts to develope the resources of this territory, its object being to render Russia as much as possible independent of other countries for supplies of silk, cotton, and the like.

In the neighbourhood of Petersburg are some large manufactories belonging to the crown, in which the government peasants are employed, as well as foundlings from the Foundling Hospital. The principal of them are the glass and porcelain manufactories, out of which have issued some magnificent specimens of art. Two mirrors made at the glass manufactory, one of which is in the Taurida Palace, and the other in Apsley House, having been presented to the Duke of Wellington, are considered the largest in the world, measuring 194 inches by 100. The cotton factory (Alexandrovski Zavod) is likewise a very large establishment, under the direction of an Englishman, General Wilson. One thousand foundlings are employed in it, and it includes not only the spinning and weaving of cotton, but the manufacture of the machinery necessary in the operations. Playing-cards are also made here exclusively, which serve chiefly to keep up the institution, since the profit of the monopoly exceeds £20,000 per annum. A manufactory at the village of Kolspinskoi, 34 versts from Petersburg, for making nautical instruments for the fleets, is also worthy of mention, as Captain Jones considers them equal to those in use in the British navy.

The iron manufactories in Russia are very numerous, many of them belonging to individuals as well as to the government. Fire-arms, all sorts of cutlery, and cast-iron utensils, are made in these manufactories, the principal of which, belonging to the crown, is at Toula, described by Dr Clarke. The most important private establishment is that of the Yakoleff family, near

Ekaterineburg, on the borders of Siberia, in which are employed 6000 peasants.

The Russian government is making zealous efforts to improve the agriculture of the country; and amongst other means of encouragement, what are called model gardens have been formed in a number of the provinces. The introduction of the Merino breed of sheep has proved completely successful, so that a large quantity of good wool is now annually produced and exported, whilst not a little is consumed in the native manufactories. The cultivation of the vine is likewise going on briskly, chiefly through the instrumentality of foreign colonists who have been induced to settle in the country by the advantages held out by government. The silk-worm has also thriven under their auspices, so that Russia has now made no little advancement in the production of wine and silk, although the quality of the former is not much to boast of. These colonists are chiefly Germans, who occupy a great number of villages, for the most part situated in southern Russia. Here also many thousands of Bulgarians and Roumelians became located after the peace of Adrianople. These colonies are not to be confounded with those of a military nature established by Alexander, in which the settlers, whilst they had land assigned to them, were trained as soldiers, and intended, as was said, to protect the frontier, but really to be used in any way in which military service was required. Some time ago, Nicholas committed a violent outrage in carrying off 600 young Polish women for behoof of one of these colonies.

The internal traffic carried on in the Russian empire is very considerable. The means of communication between its far-distant provinces afford ample facilities for conducting it with success. The commerce carried on with the Chinese, Persians, Bucharians, and Circassians in Asia, and the Prussians, Saxons, and Turks in Europe, is all of an inland nature, and chiefly in the hands of Armenians, Bucharians, and Jews, who travel from and to the different extremities of the empire. One great rallying point of trade is Nijni-Novgorod, now one of the most important towns in the Russian dominions, being admirably situated as an entrepôt for internal commerce. Its geographical position is 44 degrees 18 minutes east longitude, and 56 degrees 16 minutes north latitude, and it is distant 750 miles from Petersburg, and 260 miles from Moscow. It is seated at the confluence of the two principal rivers in Russia, the Volga and the Oka, by means of which it communicates with the Baltic, the northern provinces, and with Moscow. By the river Kama, which joins the Volga beyond Kazan, the produce of Siberia and its mines is conveyed to Nijni-Novgorod. By the lower Volga, the merchandise of central Asia, Astrachan, and Persia, has an easy access, whilst European commodities arrive from Petersburg, Riga, and Odessa. The singularly advantageous position of this town has distinctly marked it for an important commercial station, and it is positively affirmed that Peter the Great originally intended to have fixed upon it as the capital of Russia.

The amount of business done during the continuance of the fair, which lasts two months (August and September), is prodigious, ranking it as one of the most important in Europe. The confluence of traders from such remote countries, is one of the most striking and interesting objects that can be witnessed. Chinese, Indians, Tartars, Bucharians, Persians, Circassians, Armenians, Turks, and Greeks, mingling in their national costumes with the "bearded Moscovites," Italians, Poles, Germans, French, English, and Israelites, present a scene unequalled in any other part of the world. It is estimated that nearly 130,000 persons visit this fair as strangers, the resident population of the town being about 25,000. The encouragement of the fair of Nijni-Novgorod is looked upon, as might naturally be expected, as a great national concern, by the imperial government, which has expended 10,000,000 of roubles in the erection of bazaars. According to an official document, the value of the merchandise sold in 1837 was £10,500,000 sterling, which is immense. Steam-boats have been placed upon the Volga to trade from Novgorod to Astrachan and the Caspian, from which great results are expected.

Another large fair is held at Ladac, on the borders of the great plain of Thibet, to which the Chinese carry tea, which they barter for the cloths and furs brought by the Tartar merchants from Nijni, who take it back the following year to that town, whence it is dispersed throughout the empire. The tea brought overland from China to Russia is far superior in flavour to that which is sold in England, for which there are two causes assigned, independently of the tea being grown in a different part of the "celestial" empire. The first is, that tea is injured by a sea voyage, and the other, that the Russian tea is packed in flowers and leaves, which impart to it a delicious fragrance.

RANK AND TITLE.

In Great Britain, title is a measure of rank, the former necessarily conferring the latter; but in Russia it is quite different—rank and title do not go together. There are two titles of honour, that of *knaize*, prince or duke, and *graf*, count; there are also *barons*, but they are of German extraction. Every male descendant enjoys these titles, there being no preference of the elder branch; so that, being multiplied *ad infinitum*, they are of little value. Thus the title of prince is at present enjoyed by no fewer than three hundred persons. But although titles are hereditary, there is no rank except what the emperor confers; and all rank, privilege, and precedence, is either military, or is measured by a military grade. Hence the rage for military distinction, which, as Clarke and others inform us, exists amongst civilians of all classes. Every one is considered as "in the service," and each individual is classed with entire reference to military rank. It consequently follows, that titles are possessed by those who are not, as well as by those who are, nobles. Nobility confers great privileges, which are enjoyed by all belonging to that rank. It is either earned by service, or acquired by inheritance. Every one who serves the emperor in a civil or military capacity, with the rank of officer, is noble, and can wear a coronet on his seal or carriage, even though by birth a peasant. But unless the person be nobly born, or has attained at least the grade of major, his nobility dies with him. The privileges of the nobles are—exemption from the conscription, from corporeal punishment, and from taxation, with the exception of a capitation tax on their serfs, imposed at the will of the government. Further, they alone can possess serfs, and there are some other less important privileges. There are no less than fourteen classes of nobility, but, singularly enough, some of these classes have no members. Thus, of the eleventh and thirteenth none are alive. The nobles, of course, take precedency according to their class. The first eight classes admit the principle of hereditary nobility, which is not the case with the other six. The two highest classes are entirely official, being appropriated only to the principal officers of state. These are addressed in conversation as "high excellencies," those of the third and fourth classes as "excellencies," and the remainder as "noblenesses." In addressing a letter to one of these personages, care must be taken to set out at length each of his titles and distinctions, which, from their absurd accumulation on one head, is a matter of no small difficulty.

Independently of the profusion of titles and classes of nobility existing in Russia, there are twelve orders of merit, many of which are divided into several classes, some having five branches of the order. They are broadly discriminated into—1st, court honours; 2d, orders of merit both civil and military; 3d, spiritual orders; and, 4th, the order of military merit, originally Polish, but declared Russian since 1832. There are, besides, medals, and other marks of distinction. The indiscriminate manner in which these badges are distributed greatly lessens their value, and instead of creating

respect, they excite derision amongst intelligent foreigners. Even private soldiers have frequently half a dozen bits of ribbon strung in a line across the breast, and common policemen are sometimes adorned with them. A Russian general officer is usually bedizened with orders of one kind or another. Such is the pomp of savages; yet it is not to the man, but to the system under which he lives, that barbarism is to be traced. The Russian noble is as polished and accomplished a gentleman as Europe can present.

The nobles of every government in Russia meet once in three years to elect by ballot a marshal for each district, of which there are twelve in every province, and a grand-marshal for the whole government. He holds a rank next to that of the governor, has the title of excellency, and the grade of general while in office; but before he can enter on its functions, his election must be confirmed by the emperor. These marshals represent the nobles, and meet from time to time for the transaction of business, the general assembly of the whole nobles only being allowed to take place triennially, unless special permission is granted by the emperor. The business is confined to the discussion and management of local matters, such as voluntary assessment for purposes of public utility.*

CLERGY—RELIGION.

It is necessary to say a few words upon the situation and influence of the clergy in the Russian church. The profession of any religion whatever entails no civil disabilities, but the established religion of Russia is the Greek faith, which excludes the worship of graven images, but substitutes pictures in their place. The principal articles of faith are not very different from those of the Roman Catholics, but the rites and ceremonies are quite dissimilar. There is no instrumental music allowed in the churches, the priests chanting the service in loud and deep voices. On festivals, and great occasions of ceremony, a degree of pomp is introduced into the service, which even surpasses the splendour of the Catholic worship. The festivals and holidays are preposterously numerous, and form a severe tax upon industry, as well as a serious bar to the advancement and prosperity of the people, who spend every important saint's day in total idleness. Although the other members of the Greek church acknowledge as their spiritual head the Patriarch of Constantinople, the Russians have renounced his supremacy, and the autocrat is himself the head of the church. Every government in Russia is an episcopal or archiepiscopal see. The clergy are divided into secular and monastic, in the same manner as in the Roman Catholic church. The monks are generally men of superior intelligence, and of exemplary manners. The superior clergy are all taken from the monastic order, and are ranked as Metropolitans, Archbishops, Bishops, *Archimandrites*, or Abbots of superior monasteries, *Hegoumenos*, or Priors of small monasteries, and Monks. The secular clergy are by far the most numerous, including the parish priests, or *popes*, as they are called. These ministers of religion are universally described as extremely ignorant, slothful, and little above the peasantry in their habits. They are seldom seen in society; but as they mix unreservedly with the serfs, and indulge in their pursuits, they have a great influence over that numerous body, which compels the Russian sovereigns to keep them in good humour. The priestly profession usually descends from father to son, and very mediocre theological attainments are required in the calling. Before ordination, a secular priest is obliged to be married, but if his wife dies, he must remain single for the rest of his days. The clergy are paid from lands appropriated to that purpose by the government, by the gratuities they obtain for visiting the houses of the wealthy with relics or pictures of the saints, and by fees for marriages, births, and burials. The influence of the ecclesiastical body in Russia is not great, except amongst the lower orders, who join excessive superstition to ignorance; and it often happens that a prelate of the church is more honoured in "genteel society" for the civil order he wears upon his breast, than for his episcopal dignity. To the Emperor Paul is attributed the introduction of the custom of bestowing civil orders upon the higher clergy.

There have as yet been no schisms of any consequence in the Russo-Greek church. Some inconsiderable sects, however, sprang up, the members of which were called *rascolniks*, or heretics; but it would appear, from Dr Macmichael's account, that an energetic process was adopted to stop the heresy.

LITERATURE.

In speaking of the state of Russian literature, it must be kept in mind, that, as Dr Bowring has remarked in his preface to the Russian Anthology, "the productions of the Russian press are no index to the *national* cultivation." It is only amongst the higher classes that any thing like a reading public can be found: and though many native authors have enjoyed the favours of the emperor and wealthy nobles, it is to their uncertain bounty that the remuneration of literary men is solely left. Though such encouragement is praiseworthy in the individuals affording it, yet that ready market, a large and intelligent reading community, is alone calculated to draw forth to any extent the talents and the genius of native writers, and to promote the interests of literature. Therefore, although many eminent men have appeared in Russia as authors, such as Lomonosoff, Mutavieff, Karamzin, Pouschkine, &c., its literature may be said to be in its infancy, or in its imitative state. The great majority of the books that are published are translations from the German and the French, and the circulation is very limited. The sale of Karamzin's History of Russia, the most popular work ever published in that country, shows distinctly how slowly the desire of reading is spreading amongst the mass of the Russian population. It was published by subscription in the years 1818 and 1819, the total number of subscribers being 406, of whom five were clergy, forty were merchants, and three peasants, the rest being, of course, nobles. The number of copies disposed of in two editions was 1500—and this is stated to be the most widely circulated work in the empire.

It is scarcely necessary to say that the press is under the strictest censorship. Even foreign works are not permitted to be imported without undergoing a rigid scrutiny, even if forming part of a traveller's personal luggage. The mere fact of his having an obnoxious work would, indeed, expose him to great annoyance; and, therefore, every prudent person entering Russia will take care not to carry with him a copy of our friend Dr Clarke's Travels in Russia, or of any work relating to that country or Poland. Sir R. Wilson's and Dr Granville's productions enjoy an unenviable exemption. Any native author who takes a flight inconsistent with autocratic ideas, though his works be not published, is dismissed, under proper escort, to Siberia—as was the case with the most distinguished of the Russian poets, Alexander Pouschkine, under the late emperor. In fact, the most doleful prostration of spirit must characterise every book allowed to be seen or circulated in Russia; and it is only works of a purely scientific nature that are unfettered. Many such have issued from the scientific societies of Russia, both in French and Slavonic, which enjoy a well-deserved and extended reputation.

With all the disadvantages attending the manufacture of books, a considerable number has been printed in Russia. According to M. Sopicoff, who published an essay on Russian bibliography, 80,000 volumes in the Russo-Slavonic dialect were printed between 1551 (the period of the introduction of the art of printing into the country) and 1813; and, if we believe Dr Granville, as many more have been published since. The typography of the Petersburg press is remarkably good, and does

* Domestic Scenes in Russia, by the Rev. R. L. Venables, p. 152. London, 1839.

infinite credit to the Russian type-founders. Mr Bremner, our most recent authority on this point, states, that in spite of all restrictions, "Russian literature is advancing with great rapidity." In the Russian empire are published eighty papers and minor periodicals, and about twelve scientific and literary journals. This is something, certainly; but compare it with what is issued in any single *one* of the states of the North American Union. The fact is, there cannot be said to exist in Russia a press at all, in the common acceptation of the term, for the newspapers and political periodicals must necessarily be government organs. The jealous vigilance of the censorship is particularly directed to English newspapers, all but the *Morning Post* being strictly prohibited from entering the capital. In 1837, the printing establishments in the empire amounted to 171, of which 94 were maintained by government. There were also 74 lithographic establishments, 9 of which were supported by the state.

EDUCATION.

A vast system of education has been organised by the Russian government, which embraces the whole population of the empire, down to the humblest serf. It is placed under the direct and immediate control of the state, and is superintended by a ministry of public instruction, the head of which is one of the principal officers of the crown, like our secretary for the home department, the colonies, and so on. The different branches of the administration also take special cognisance of the schools analogous to them. Thus the military schools are presided over by the war office, and the ecclesiastical schools by the holy synod. The whole system is divided into four distinct parts:—1. The ministry of public instruction; 2. Military schools; 3. Ecclesiastical schools; and 4. Special and various schools. It is to the schools in the first category that we shall pay particular attention, because they extend to the masses of the people, and, properly speaking, constitute that part of the system of national education by which the great body of the Russian population is to be enlightened.

The *ministry of public instruction* comprehends education in public schools, which are discriminated into: 1. Parish schools, intended for the lower orders of all kinds, but allowed to teach only the catechism, reading, writing, and the first four rules of arithmetic. 2. District schools, having three classes intended for the children of shopkeepers, and restricted in their course of instruction to the catechism, caligraphy, drawing, the first rudiments of grammar, arithmetic, geometry, geography, and history. 3. Gymnasia distributed by government, and authorised to embrace more elevated studies, but only accessible to the children of the nobility. 4. Universities of three faculties, those of philosophy, jurisprudence, and medicine (Dorpat has also that of theology), and of which the courses last five years. The following is a table of the state of the schools in 1835, throughout the ten circuits of the Russian empire, exclusive of Poland, which has a separate administration. Another university has lately been established at Vladimir in Volhynia, so that, with the university of Warsaw, there will be nine institutions of this description throughout the empire:—

	Number of			
	Universities.	Gymnasiums.	Infant Schools.	Pupils.
Circuit of St Petersburg	1	8	571	11,911
Moscow -	1	10	914	16,259
Kharkov -	1	7	209	11,446
Kazan - -	1	10	187	8,459
Dorpat - -	1	4	248	8,826
White Russia	1	13	239	11,530
Kief - - -	1	7	82	6,790
Odessa - -	0	5	59	4,647
Caucasus -	0	1	15	1,285
Siberia - -	0	2	39	2,043
Total -	7	67	2563	83,196

According to an official report of the minister of public instruction, in 1837 the number of pupils had risen to 95,560. The following table not only shows the present state of the universities, but of the libraries and scientific collections, and its introduction will save much verbal description:—

	1808.		1824.		1835.						
	Professors and Masters.	Pupils.	Professors and Masters.	Pupils.	Professors and Masters.	Pupils.	Libraries Vols. MSS.	Zoology Specimens.	Medals.	Botany Specimens.	Mineralogy Specimens.
St Petersburg	—	—	38	51	64	285	21,854	9,100	293	6,000	7,837
Moscow -	49	135	59	820	120	419	50,712	33,266	6,289	17,627	3,800
Kharkov -	27	82	43	337	56	342	31,435	6,462	19,957	11,510	—
Kazan - -	15	40	34	118	89	252	29,874	4,306	8,843	1,776	14,139
Dorpat - -	37	193	39	365	68	567	60,473	2,949	—	12,594	11,590
Kief - - -	—	—	—	—	61	120	44,474	14,790	19,760	5,329	19,288
Total -	128	450	213	1691	458	1985					

The reader who examines the above table, will no doubt be struck by the rather startling phenomenon, that Kief, for instance, has a professor or master for every two pupils. But we apprehend that librarians, conservators of museums, and other officials, are included under this head.

The minister of public instruction further superintends education in private institutions, domestic education, establishments destined for forming professors and masters, and the academy of sciences, the Russian academy, the other learned societies, the censorship, public libraries, museums, and collections of every description. Private and domestic education are shackled and harassed by restrictions, and even discouraged, lest forbidden truths should be instilled into the youthful mind. For instance, every teacher must have a diploma; no books are allowed to be used except such as are sanctioned by government; and no father even can choose a tutor for his child except from amongst the ranks of the elected. There is at St Petersburg an upper teachers' institution, a sort of normal school, its object being the preparation of tutors for the gymnasia and lyceums of the empire. It stands next in order to the universities, and has about 150 pupils.

The military schools are very widely distributed throughout the empire, as might naturally be inferred; and they absorb far too much of the funds allotted to national education. The ecclesiastical schools are also numerous, and divided into those of the Greek church, and those of other forms of worship, both receiving aid from government. Let Britain learn the fact, and blush. The special and various schools are too numerous to be specified in detail. They are chiefly under different ministries corresponding to their character, and comprise instruction in mining, technology, mercantile marine, science of forests, agriculture, land surveying, commerce, medicine, surgery, and pharmacy (independent of the universities), rural affairs, the fine arts,

architecture, music, civil engineering, jurisprudence, Asiatic languages, &c. In this category are classed a great number of benevolent institutions of every description, and schools for destitute children.

From a native work on the state of education in Russia, published in 1837, we learn that at that time the money supplied by government to the schools throughout the Russian empire was thus distributed:

	Pupils.	Roubles.
The Ministry of Public Instruction,	85,707	7,450,000
Military schools, - -	179,931	8,687,194
Ecclesiastical schools, - -	67,024	3,000,000
Divers schools, - -	127,864	9,596,947
Total, -	460,576	28,734,141

This upon a population of 48,000,000, independently of the Asiatic population (which we are quite willing, with M. Krusenstern, the author, to exclude from the calculation), gives about one pupil for every 104 of the inhabitants. He estimates the number of children receiving a home education at 597,424 individuals (which, however, we consider much too high), thus giving to Russia one pupil enjoying education for every fifty of the inhabitants. The last report of the minister for public instruction gives the proportion for 1837 as one in forty-five. We very much doubt the fact; but on the other hand, we see no motive which the Russian government can have in wishing to deceive either itself or others. The data upon which the minister grounds his calculations are possibly erroneous, for we have not seen the details of his report, only the abstract. And there is another thing which must be taken into consideration. In cities and towns there are the amplest facilities afforded for education, and here the proportion may be as high as it is in any other European state, but from the nature of the country, and the character of the peasantry themselves, this cannot possibly be the case in the provinces. The conclusion, therefore, is, that in the provinces not more than one in a hundred, in some places probably much more, receives education. The nobles and upper classes are highly educated; those intended for public situations are much more highly and judiciously accomplished than any other class of the same description in the whole world, not excepting Great Britain. Independently of the institutions directly occupied with the education of youth, there are a number of learned societies and scientific institutions, some of which are deservedly celebrated. A word with respect to the system of public instruction. Whilst we award all due praise to the Russian government for extending the blessings of education to all classes of the people, we must condemn the principle on which the system has been organised. The authorities announce, that the children of all the Russias below the rank of nobility, "have no occasion for a scientific education," and that they acquire in the schools "knowledge sufficient for the sphere in which they are destined to live." Thus the parish schools are intended to diffuse elementary knowledge amongst the lowest of the population; the district schools are appropriated to a class a little higher in the scale, whilst the gymnasia are exclusively set apart for the scions of nobility.

Russia still retains the mode of reckoning by what we call "old style," and is therefore twelve days behind other nations by the calendar. The fact of old style being still in use, is rather singular, considering that there is no lack of scientific men in the country. The reason assigned for this is partly the fear which the emperor has of any serious innovations giving offence to the nobles, and partly the unwillingness of the clergy to accede to any change which would so materially disarrange the present order of their numerous feasts or saints' days. Without the sanction of the priesthood, such an important reform could not be completely carried into effect.

CONCLUSION.

Having now presented a general view of the present condition of the Russian empire, in both its political and social relations, nothing remains to be done but to close the subject with a remark of general application. From all that has been detailed, it is seen that Russia is at this moment one of the most extensive and populous nations on the earth; its power, likewise, is of great magnitude, though not of that overwhelming kind which need excite any serious apprehension on the part of civilised Europe generally, or Great Britain in particular. The unwieldy territorial extent—the variety of races (many of them but lately conquered), and opposite religious creeds—the excessive ignorance and superstition of the bulk of the population—the fears of the ruling power for its own safety—the jealousies of the nobility—and, above all, the want of pecuniary resources to carry on distant warlike enterprises, or to support a lengthened contest with such a wealthy and commercial country as Britain, and that country, too, a good customer for raw produce—all, in short, tends to curb the desires which Russia may have for encroaching upon the rights and possessions of Britain; and, in effect, the very aggrandisements of that overgrown empire, render her weak for any thing but bullying, intriguing, and petty mischief-making. For some years, a certain class of political alarmists have exerted themselves to awaken a dread of Russia in the public mind of Britain, and to recommend a war for the purpose of weakening it. The absurdity of such declaimers is shown nowhere so expressively as in the statement of the exports and imports of Russia, and its custom-house revenues. Is there any chance of aggressive hostility from a power which draws half its custom-house revenue from British imports, and sends to Britain one-half of all the raw produce which it can raise for exportation? How long would the Russian nobility tolerate a war which would instantly strike dead one-half of the income derived from their estates through foreign commerce? The thing is preposterous. It is evidently for the interest of both countries that they should remain at peace; and we have no doubt that, for this good and sufficient reason, they will remain at peace, or, at least, that any hostilities which may be provoked through the efforts of the alarmists, will be of the most trifling and temporary character.

END OF CLARKE'S TRAVELS IN RUSSIA.

9 5554

EDINBURGH:
Printed by W. & R. CHAMBERS, 19, Waterloo Place.

5
5 5554

U. C. BERKELEY LIBRARIES
C090927012